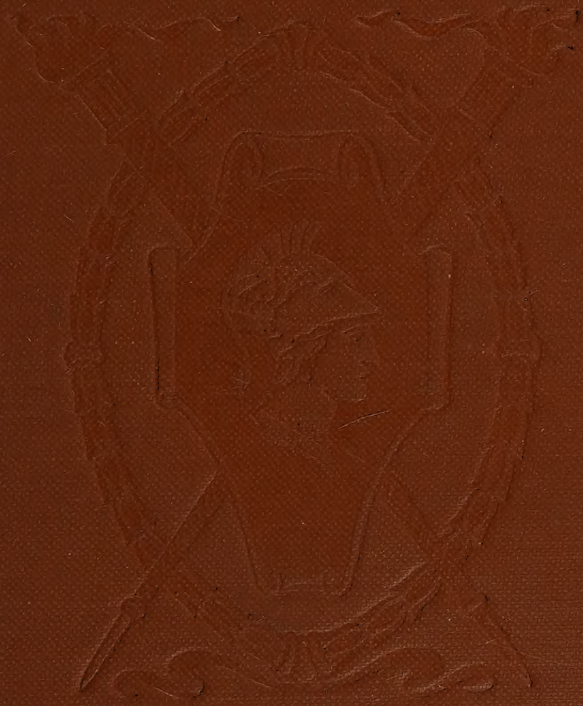

THE BODY OF EDWARD VII LYING IN STATE

NEW STANDARD EDITION

THE WORLD'S GREAT EVENTS

AN INDEXED HISTORY OF THE WORLD FROM EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY

BY

GREAT HISTORIANS

EDITED BY

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ILLUSTRATED

VOLUME NINE

FROM A. D. 1906 TO A. D. 1911

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THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS

(A.D. 1906)

FERGUS CRANE

Latin America.

IT would seem that for Latin America to attain greatness it would be necessary for her to develop in all her nations that degree of commercial honor which the great powers of the world to-day are disposed to exact—a condition to which some of the republics south of the Caribbean Sea have attained in full measure and toward which several of the others are aspiring with the active support of their business peoples.

Financial reorganization, including plans for refunding the public debt, and some reasonable degree of certainty that the future will not witness a repetition of the era of profligate bond issues by conscienceless dictators whose private purse absorbed the bulk of the proceeds of such issues through contracts, syndicates and nepotism, must come in the case of more than one republic to the south of us before the Washington Government may be freed of anxiety over the peril of imbroglios between European nations on the one hand and Western republics on the other.

Another means by which Latin America has

become enmeshed in debt lies in the operations of exploiting syndicates of foreign industrial companies, which have usually acquired their first equities in the form of unusually broad concessions obtained from dictators, whose affection for their native shores did not suffice to make them safeguard the interests of the posterity of their fellow-countrymen. In more than a few instances there has been some reason to suspect that foreign promoters of the natural resources of Latin America have followed what might be described as the line of least resistance, and in so doing have dealt with political interests which failed of patriotic indorsement. Such creditors, whose course has been scrupulously just, should not be classed with financial adventurers in the eyes of the stable business communities of the nations which attracted their investments.

Wall Street's interest in Latin America.

That South American finance is beginning to interest this country largely is one of the notes of the day. Wall Street financiers are, many of them, hoping that the Washington Government will prove successful in its amendment of the Monroe Doctrine. Frank A. Vanderlip, vice-president of the National City Bank of New York, in an article published in the New York "Times," said:

"The Germans and the English have the lead in South American national finance, but with the growing disposition of our investing

public to become interested in government issues, and with the clearer understanding of the responsibilities which must follow our declaration of the principles of the Monroe Doctrine, there seems to be every reason to anticipate that we shall rapidly take a position of importance in connection with the financial administration of several South American countries."

The Rio conference will be the third congress of American republics in which the United States have taken part. The first of these was the conference over which James G. Blaine presided at Washington in the winter of 1889-90. The second was held at Mexico City in 1901 and was attended by Secretary Hay. A sentimental point lies in the fact that the first of these three congresses was held at the capital seat of Anglo-Saxon institutions on this continent and the second in the Spanish-American capital of Porfirio Diaz, while the third will assemble in the chief city of Portuguese traditions and civilization in this hemisphere, thus paying alternate tribute to the three dominant influences in the new world.

The first Pan-American Congress.

There was a much earlier Pan-American Congress, however. During the presidency of John Quincy Adams, Mexico, Central America and Colombia (then New Granada) invited the United States to send delegates to an international conference of American republics to be held at Panama. The United

States Senate debated until March before confirming the nominations by President Adams of Richard C. Anderson of Kentucky and John Sergeant of Pennsylvania as "envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary to the assembly of American nations at Panama." One of the envoys died en route to Panama, and the other arrived there after the adjournment of the congress.

Reiterating the Monroe Doctrine, the Pan-American dictum of the preceding administration, President Adams in sending the nominations of the Panama envoys to the Senate had this to say regarding the feebler republics of this hemisphere:

"We have laid the foundation of our future intercourse with them in the broadest principles of reciprocity and the most cordial feelings of fraternal friendships. To extend those principles to all our commercial relations with them and to hand down that friendship to future ages is congenial to the highest policy of the Union, as it will be to that of all those nations and their posterity."

Pan-American Congress of 1889-90.

On October 2, 1889, representatives of all the independent nations of North, Central, and South America and the Republic of Haiti assembled in Washington. This congress was the result of an invitation sent by Secretary Blaine to these countries to discuss their intercontinental interests and, primarily, to promote commercial intercourse. The effective-

ness of the regulations and the good will of the congress are reflected in commercial statistics. In 1890 the volume of our annual exports to other American republics aggregated $60,000,000, while last year our exports to these countries reached $200,000,000.

The chief tangible work of the Washington conference was the establishment of "The International Union of American Republics for the Prompt Collection and Distribution of Commercial Information." Under the supervision of our Department of State and in connection with this international union, the Bureau of American Republics was organized at Washington, in order to issue bulletins from time to time, containing information useful to producers, manufacturers and merchants interested in the development of New World commerce, including customs tariffs, official circulars, international treaties and conventions, local regulations as to commerce and navigation, and wherever practicable, statistics as to the resources, products, and commerce of American republics.

Projects of 1890.

Other projects outlined at the Washington conference, which continued in session until April 19, 1890, comprised a continental plan of arbitration eliminating wars of conquest, the formulation of a body of American international law, the recommendation of arbitration for the settlement of disputes between American republics and the nations of

Europe, an outline of the proposal to build an intercontinental railway, which has since enlisted the approval of Andrew Carnegie and Henry G. Davis, a plan to subsidize Atlantic and Pacific steamship lines between North and South America, the elaboration of reciprocal trade agreements and a plea for uniformity in customs and sanitary regulations.

John Hay represented the United States at the Mexico City congress of 1901, which accomplished seemingly far less than its Washington predecessor. Three achievements, however, marked the sessions of this assembly. The nations agreed much more fully upon the conditions designed to govern the construction and operation of the proposed intercontinental railway. A resolution was adopted, calling for a Pan-American conference once every five years. Thirdly, and this was, perhaps, more important than the provision for future congresses at regular intervals, a treaty for the arbitration of all pecuniary claims.

The U. S. delegates.

When the delegates assemble in Rio Janeiro shortly, many detailed problems await their discussion, besides the Roosevelt and Root development of the Monroe Doctrine, the expediency of a system of monitor republics and the Calvo Doctrine of Latin America. From the previous congresses the Rio delegates will inherit the intercontinental plan and the simplification of the customs restric-

tions, consular laws and quarantine regulations of the republics.

At the head of the formal delegates of the United States to the Rio congress is William I. Buchanan, who has been the American minister to Argentina and to Panama. Another of the delegates will be Tulio Larrinaga, Porto Rican Commissioner to the Congress of the United States, a recognition of the interest of Porto Rico in our intercontinental relations. Completing the delegation are James S. Harlan, who has served an attorney-generalship in Porto Rico, Professor L. S. Rowe, of the University of Pennsylvania, and Van Leer Polk, of Tennessee.

Out of the discussion of the evolution of the Monroe Doctrine and the aspiration of Latin America as set forth in the doctrine of Carlos Calvo may come the first definite step toward a coherent intercontinental policy. In the scheme for monitor republics may lie the germ of a body of American international law which shall tend to conserve permanently the sovereign independence and dignity of each member of the sisterhood of American republics. To quote a dinner toast recently offered by Secretary Root to the nations of the New World:

"Monitor republics."

"May the independence, the freedom, and the rights of the least and weakest be ever respected equally with the rights of the strongest, and may we all do our share toward the

Secretary Root's toast.

building up of a sound and enlightened public opinion of the Americas, which shall everywhere, upon both continents, mightily promote the reign of peace, of order, and of justice in every American republic."

Toole, comedian, dies.

[French Budget Committee plans to abolish the guillotine. Toole, the great comedian, dies. Direct cable communication established between the United States and Japan. Italian steamship *Sirio* wrecked near Cape Palos, Spain (300 drown). Shah grants constitution to Persia.]

THE PERSIAN CRISIS

(A.D. 1906)

ANGUS HAMILTON

THE troubles in Persia at the present time date back to the spring of 1906, when the late Shah Muzaffer-ed-Din, was induced to agree to the creation of a Mejliss, or National Assembly. The Code Constitution, or Kanun-Assassi, was signed on January 1, 1907, and by its powers written checks were placed upon the royal prerogatives of the Shah for the first time in Persian history. For the future the Persian monarch was no longer an absolute ruler, nor was he any more master of the lives and owner of the goods of his subjects. In complimentary phraseology, doubtless, he will continue to be described as the King of Kings, the Shadow of God, and the Centre of the Universe, but stripped of hyperbole he had become an annuitant of the State, with the revenues of the country removed from his control. The Code Constitution prevents the monarch from altering or overruling the primogenital laws of succession, while the rights of the Throne to the Crown jewels and State properties, save for a small proportion set aside for its private

A National Assembly created.

purpose, pass to the nation. As an instance of this it may be said that the famous diamonds, Derya-i-nur and Taj-i-mah, weighing respectively 186 and 146 carats, no longer rank among the personal assets of the monarch.

The Shah's power curbed.

In every way the Code Constitution modified the autocratic privileges of the Shah, and where, hitherto, the Persian ruler had exercised full liberty of action, the supreme control of affairs now passed to Parliament. Freedom of speech, the right of criticising Government measures and the liberty of the Press, were conceded unconditionally, while Ministers of State were responsible to Parliament for their offices. In addition to a Lower House there was to be a Mejliss-e-Sanah or Senate of Peers. The throne was to have the power of dissolving Parliament and of summoning a new House, as well as the right to veto. All acts and statutes were to receive the formal sanction of the Shah before becoming law.

In the Ministerial departments a number of changes were also introduced, and Ministers were empowered to take the initiative without referring to the Crown. As a check on possible abuse the Mejliss was conceded the right to requisition any information from Ministers of State that was required. Special clauses regulated the succession to the Crown and vested it in the lineal descendants of Muzaffer-ed-Din, while the provisions made for the sup-

port of the royal establishments recall our own Civil List. A fixed proportion from the revenues of the province of Azerbaijan was set aside for the Heir Apparent.

Before the Persian Parliament had time to become accustomed to the Code Constitution, Muzaffer-ed-Din died and Mahomet Ali Shah* came to the throne on January 8th. A new Shah.

From the first day of his reign the new ruler was involved in difficulties with the Mejliss, who declined to entertain proposals for a joint Anglo-Russian loan of £400,000, although it was supported by the Ministers. In other directions the action of the Mejliss was equally startling and sought not only far-reaching reforms, which included a National Bank with a subscribed capital of £10,000,000 with which to redeem their country's liabilities but the recall of all notoriously repressive provincial officials, and the dismissal of M. Naus, the head of the Belgian Customs, together with his assistant, M. Priem.

Accustomed to the short shifts of autocracy, the Shah was reluctant to conform with the demands of the Mejliss, particularly as Reactionaries were able to present the efforts of the Reformers in a light that was not conducive to their success. Exasperated at the

*The reigning Shah of Persia is Sultan Ahmed Kajar, son of Mahomet Ali Shah, who succeeded to the throne (July 17, 1909) on the abdication of his father. The present regent is Nasir-el-Mulk, elected by the National Assembly, September, 1910.

action of the Mejliss, the Shah excluded the members from the ceremonies of the coronation which took place on January 19, 1907, as from the general Durbar, which was held on January 20th, and never wavered in an intention to re-establish the autocratic *régime* so soon as opportunity offered.

The chance came in the autumn of 1907, when three Cabinets followed each other into retirement in quick succession; and, as the solution of administrative difficulties was not advancing, Mahomet Ali decided to recall from exile the Amin-es-Sultan, for years the right-hand man of his grandfather, Nasir-ed-Din Shah. The success of this move did not become apparent, for Amin-es-Sultan was assassinated in August, 1907, and the general aspect of affairs rapidly darkened under the influence of the numerous political clubs which, called into existence by the Shah's reaction, were avowedly revolutionary. Meanwhile a new Prime Minister was appointed in the person of Nizam-es-Sultan, who soon proved his inability to find any basis of co-operation and the contradictory hostility of the Shah and the Mejliss increased, while the Constitutionalists attempted more and more to usurp the royal prerogative. Not unnaturally, Mahomet Ali objected to any infringement of his executive power, and although, as a concession to the Mejliss, Nizam-es-Sultan was replaced by Nasir-el-

Amin-es-Sultan assassinated.

Mulk, the seeds of a bitter conflict between the Shah and his Parliament were now sown.

Although each side gave way in minor matters and the policy of the Shah was occasionally abject, and less frequently provocative, a burning question soon arose, concerned at first solely with the amount of the royal Civil List. The Mejliss had proposed that the Shah should confine his expenditure in all matters appertaining to the royal establishments within the sum of £100,000, which had been set aside for his use. The Shah at first was pleased to regard this sum as a sufficient contribution for his needs, until his Treasurer explained that the upkeep of the royal establishments—that is, the harem, the household, palaces, parks, and court disbursements—would entail as much again. For a time the Shah endeavored to come to terms with the Mejliss, and his motives will be readily appreciated when it is understood that the proposals of the Mejliss had stirred the hostility of all who were sufferers in any way under the suggested restrictions.

The royal Civil List.

The royal overtures were rejected with contumacy by the Mejliss. At the same time it was prepared with an increase if his Majesty would dismiss his reactionary associates, at whose intrigues against the Nasir-el-Mulk Cabinet serious exception was taken by the clubs, the assembly, and the common people. Unlike the previous Prime Minister, Nasir-

Popularity of Nasir-el-Mulk.

el-Mulk was popular. His administration of affairs was regarded with complacency, and in the interests of righteous government the Mejliss demanded the expulsion of Saad-ed-Dowleh and Amir Jang Bahadur, who, brought from Tabriz by the Shah at his accession, was distinguished by a sincere devotion to the Throne. At the moment no compromise was effected, and after much useless discussion, in which the Constitutionalists encouraged the use of gross invective against the Shah in the Mejliss, the representatives of the various political clubs forwarded to Mahomet Ali a letter of protest, convening at the same time a public meeting at which the answer should be announced. In sympathy with this action the Ministry tendered their resignations to the Shah, who, in a measure, stood alone, a solitary figure at the parting of the ways. Conscious that the times pointed to a return to autocracy, Mahomet Ali, without advisers, Reactionary or Progressive, in whom reliance could be placed, determined, since his Ministers were powerless to suppress the active participation of the Mejliss in the plots of the anti-dynastic clubs, that he himself would take measures. Disheartened at the prospect, and attributing to Constitutional government the troubles which beset his Kingdom, he dissolved the Mejliss, proclaimed a state of siege, and completed an effective *coup d'état* by arresting a number

of Ministers, including the Prime Minister. Unfortunately for the success of the Shah's plans, Nasir-el-Mulk was held in high esteem by the European residents of Teheran, and, acting on the instructions of Mr. Marling, the British Chargé d'Affaires, Mr. Churchill, the Oriental Secretary of the British Legation, immediately secured the release of the Cabinet. For the next few days Teheran was divided between two armed camps, the Reactionaries in possession of the Top Maiden or Gun Square supporting Mahomet Ali, and the Constitutionalists, pledged to the protection of Parliamentary rights and the principles of democracy, flocking to the Sipah Saler Mosque. Meanwhile on one day the Mejliss petitioned the Shah and on another appealed in a circular for the moral support of the Legations, while Ministers, deputations and the representatives of the foreign Powers came and went about the Palace, fading as images in a glass darkly, until the humor of the Shah yielded under the united representation of the capital.

The Shah conquered.

If peace at last had fallen upon the capital the usual tranquillity of the provinces had given place to conditions of restlessness, which required strong measures for its suppression. But while the Mejliss talked and did nothing the Shah was without resources. With no money at his disposal and an army that was unpaid, unfed, and ill-disciplined,

the plight of Persia seemed hopeless, at once a tragic example of the futility of democratic government in an Oriental country and a lesson to all who would read. Accordingly, fomented by agitators from Teheran or by the secret emissaries of the political clubs in Baku and Tabriz, the provinces in the spring of 1908 broke into rebellion.

Revolution breaks out.

EUGENICS

(A.D. 1906)

HAVELOCK ELLIS

DURING recent years the question of the future of the race, and more especially of the English-speaking peoples, has been brought before us in a way it has never been brought before. Half a century ago the English-speaking countries of the world found themselves developing so rapidly in wealth, prosperity and population that it seemed to them for the moment that the whole earth was their heritage, and that the other peoples of the world would sooner or later be hopelessly submerged. Such a view can no longer be maintained. On the one hand in the smaller countries there has been a growing movement of nationalism, an impulse to resist external invading forces of every kind, and to cherish national languages and national literatures. On the other hand, an entirely different tendency is now seen in the birth rates of the large countries which seemed about to swallow the others. The great expansive movement is over.

Growing movement of nationalism.

Whereas fifty years ago France seemed to present a striking contrast to other countries

Gradually decreasing birth rate.

in her low and gradually falling birth rate, to-day, though she has herself now almost reached a stationary position, she is seen merely to have been the leader in a movement which is common to all the more highly civilized nations. They are all now moving rapidly in the direction in which she moved slowly. More strikingly than anywhere is this movement witnessed in the English-speaking countries, from the oldest to the youngest. In England, in the United States, in Canada, in Australia, in New Zealand, the birth rate, more especially of the so-called "Anglo-Saxon" elements of the population is rapidly falling. Here and there it has already fallen lower than in France, and in those lands in which there is the highest general level of prosperity (as we may see in New Zealand) we find the most marked tendency to a low birth rate. The belief that the "Anglo-Saxon" would increase and multiply till he covered the whole earth now belongs to the past.

There are always people who seem anxious to dash their heads against a wall—fortunately, it is true, usually people whose heads are not likely to be damaged in the process—and it was inevitable that this movement, world-wide as it is, should call forth energetic protests from those who will still cling to the notion of an English-speaking world empire.

There has thus been much vigorous preach-

ing against "race suicide." But whatever the causes of the declining birth rate may be—and it is unnecessary here to enter into a question that is more complex than many people imagine—it is certain that even when they are within our control they are of far too intimate a character for the public moralist to be permitted to touch them.

It has to be recognized that we are here in the presence, not of a merely local or temporary tendency which might be shaken off with an effort, but of a great fundamental law of civilization; and the fact that we have encountered it in our own race merely means that we are reaching a fairly high stage of civilization. It is far from the first time in the history of the world that the same phenomenon has been witnessed. It was seen in imperial Rome; it was seen, again, in "Protestant Rome," Geneva. Here were gathered together an exceedingly fine race of people, the flower of Protestant France, people of the highest mental and moral distinction, and the birth rate fell steadily. Vice and virtue alike avail nothing in this field. With high civilization fertility inevitably diminishes, sterility inevitably increases.

Under these circumstances it was to be expected that a new ideal should begin to flash before men's eyes. If the ideal of quantity is lost to us, why not seek the ideal of quality? We know that the old rule, "Increase and

The new ideal.

multiply" meant a vast amount of infant mortality, of starvation, of chronic disease, of widespread misery. In abandoning that rule, as we have been forced to do, are we not now left free to see that our children, though few, should be at all events fit, the finest, alike in physical and psychical constitution, that the world has seen?

Modern conception of eugenics.

Thus has come about the recent expansion of that conception of eugenics—or the science and art of being well-born and of breeding the human race a step nearer perfection—which a few among us, and more especially Mr. Francis Galton, have been developing for some years past. Eugenics is beginning to be felt to possess a living actuality which it was not felt to possess before. Instead of being a benevolent scientific fad, it begins to present itself as the goal to which we are inevitably moving.

It has always seemed to me that Mr. Galton somewhat prejudiced the cause of eugenics in the public mind by comparing it to the artificial breeding of domestic animals. In reality the two things are altogether different. In breeding animals a higher race of beings manipulates a lower race with the object of securing definite points that are of no use whatever to the animals themselves, but of considerable value to the breeders. In our own race, on the other hand, the problem of breeding is presented in an entirely different

shape. There is as yet no race of super-men who are prepared to breed man for their own special ends. As things are, even if we had the ability and the power, we should surely hesitate before we bred men and women as we breed dogs or fowls. We may, therefore, quite put aside all discussion of eugenics as a sort of higher cattle-breeding. It is undesirable, it is impracticable, and it lends itself to cheap ridicule.

But there is another aspect of eugenics, and one which Mr. Galton himself has by no means lost sight of. Human eugenics need not be, and is not likely to be, a cold-blooded selection of partners by some outside scientific authority. But it may be, and is very likely to be, a slowly growing conviction—first among the more intelligent members of the community, and then by imitation and fashion among the intelligent members—that our children, the future race, the torch-bearers of civilization for succeeding ages, are not the mere result of chance or Providence, but that, in a very real sense, it is within our grasp to mould them, that the salvation or damnation of many future generations lies in our hands, since it depends on our wise and sane choice of mates.

A wise and sane choice of mates.

In considering this question, therefore, we are justified in putting aside not only every kind of human breeding resembling the artificial breeding of animals, but also, at all events for the present, every compulsory pro-

hibition on marriage or procreation. We must be content to concern ourselves with ideals, and with the endeavor to exert our personal influence in the realization of these ideals.

The histories of individual families, while of great value, cannot, it is evident, furnish a foundation on which to base scientific generalization, still less one which would justify practical action. Steps are, however, already being taken to supplement this defect, at all events to some extent and in some respects. A vast amount of valuable information on which it is possible to build up a knowledge of the correlated characteristics of families lies at present unused in the great insurance offices; and when this begins to be used, as there is now reason to believe that it will be, for scientific purposes, and is thrown into a properly tabulated form, we shall certainly be in a position to know more of the qualities of stocks, of their good and bad characteristics, and of the degree in which they are correlated.

Predictions regarding offspring.

In this way we shall in time be able to obtain a clear picture of the probable results on the offspring of unions between any kind of people. From personal and ancestral data we shall be able to reckon the probable quality of the offspring of a married couple. Given a man and woman of known personal qualities and of known ancestors, what are

likely to be the personal qualities, physical, mental, and moral of the children? That is a question of immense importance for the beings whom we bring into the world, for the community generally, and for the future race.

It is not true that anyone loves anyone, and that mutual attraction is entirely a matter of chance. The investigations which have lately been carried out show that there are certain definite tendencies in this matter, that certain kinds of people tend to be attracted to certain kinds, especially that like are attracted to like rather than unlike to unlike, and that, again while some kinds of people tend to be married with special frequency other kinds tend to be left unmarried. Sexual selection, even when left to random influences, is still not left to chance; it follows definite and ascertainable laws. In that way the free play of love, however free it may appear, is really limited in a number of directions.

Like attracted to like.

Sexual selection follows definite laws.

People do not tend to fall in love with those who are in racial respects a contrast to themselves; they do not tend to fall in love with foreigners; they do not tend to be attracted to the ugly, the diseased, the deformed. All these things may happen, but they are the exception and not the rule. These limitations to the roving impulses of love, while very real, to some extent vary at different periods in accordance with the ideals which happen to be fashionable. In more remote

ages they have been still more profoundly modified by religious and social ideas; polygamy and polyandry, the custom of marrying only inside one's own caste, or only outside it—all these various and contradictory plans have been easily accepted at some place and some time, and have offered no more conscious obstacle to the free play of love than among ourselves is offered by the prohibition against marriage between near relatives.

Eugenic ideal aids natural instincts.

As Mr. Galton and those who think with him conceive it, the eugenic ideal which is now developing is not an artificial product but the reasoned manifestation of a natural instinct which has often been far more severely strained by the arbitrary prohibitions of the past than it is ever likely to be by any eugenic ideals of the future.

The new ideal will be absorbed into the conscience of the community, like a kind of religion, and will instinctively and unconsciously influence the impulses of men and women. It will do all this the more surely since, unlike the taboos of savage societies, the eugenic ideal will lead men and women to reject as partners only the men and women who are naturally unfit—the diseased, the abnormal, the weaklings—and conscience will thus be on the side of impulse.

Love on the side of scientific conscience.

It may indeed be pointed out that those who advocate a higher and more scientific conscience in matters of mating are by no

means plotting against love, which is for the most part on their side, but rather against the influences that do violence to love—on the one hand the reckless and thoughtless yielding to mere momentary desire; and, on the other hand, the still more fatal influence of wealth and position and worldly convenience, which give a fictitious value to persons who would never appear attractive partners in life were love and eugenic ideals left to go hand in hand. It is this sort of unions, and not those which are inspired by the wholesome instincts of wholesome lovers, which leads to the deterioration of the race. The eugenic ideal will have to struggle with the criminal, and still more resolutely with the rich; it will have few serious quarrels with normal and well-constituted lovers.

It will perhaps be clear how it is that the eugenic conception of the improvement of the race embodies a new ideal. We are familiar with legislative projects for the sterilization of the unfit. But such projects, and, indeed, any mere legislation, cannot go to the root of the matter; for, in the first place, what we need is a great body of facts, and a careful attention to the record and registration and statistical tabulation of personal and family histories; in the second place, we need that sound ideals and a high sense of responsibility should permeate the whole community, first its finer and more distinguished members, and

High sense of responsibility desired.

then, by the usual contagion that rules in such matters, the whole body of its members.

In time, no doubt, this would lead to concerted social action. We may reasonably expect that a time will come when if, for instance, as in a case known to me, an epileptic woman conceals her condition from the man she is marrying, it will generally be felt that an offense has been committed serious enough to invalidate the marriage. We must not suppose that lovers would be either willing or competent to investigate each other's family and medical histories; but it would be at least as easy and as simple to choose a partner from those persons who had successfully passed the eugenic test—more especially since such persons would certainly be the most attractive group in the community—as it is for an Australian aborigine to select a conjugal partner from one social group rather than from any other.

It is a matter of accepting an ideal and of exerting our personal and social influence in the direction of that ideal. If we really seek to raise the level of humanity we may in this way begin to do so to-day.

Raising the general level of humanity.

[Earthquakes in Chili. Cuban insurrection begins. Bomb thrown at Stolypin (30 killed). Telegraph Cable from Shetland Islands to Iceland completed. Roosevelt spelling reform for Government printing takes effect. Father

Francis Xavier Wernz elected General of the Jesuits. Headings of Pennsylvania R. R. tunnel under Hudson River joined. Wreck on Canadian Pacific Railroad (12 killed). Typhoon at Hong Kong destroys thousands. Great Northern train wrecked at Grantham, England (10 killed). Race riots at Atlanta ended by troops (29 killed). Institute of International Law at Ghent, Belgium, formulates regulations for use of wireless telegraphy in war time. Hurricanes sweep through Gulf States. Palma resigns and Roosevelt orders American intervention in Cuba. Secretary Taft becomes provisional governor. Sixteen competitors leave Paris for Gordon Bennett Balloon Cup. Exeter (England) celebrates 700th anniversary by historical pageant. Floods in Mexico (123 lives lost). French submarine *Lutin* disappeared with crew of 14. Battleship *Maine* breaks the world's record for target practice. Hurricane devastates Havana, Florida and parts of Central America. Countess of Carlisle elected President of the World's Christian Temperance Union. Russian steamer *Variag* strikes torpedo while leaving Vladivostok Harbor (200 drowned). Suffragettes make demonstration in lobby of House of Commons. St. Paul's Catholic Cathedral, Pittsburgh, consecrated. Daring robbery of gold and notes on their way to Treasury in St. Petersburg (£40,000 secured). Liberals defeated in House of

American intervention in Cuba.

Lords on an amendment to Education Bill. Commander Peary's Polar Expedition penetrates farthest north (87 degrees, 6 minutes). Fire in Hamilton, Ohio ($1,000,000 losses). Roosevelt visits Panama. Albert of Flanders declared sovereign of the Congo Independent State. John D. Rockefeller and Standard Oil directors indicted at Findlay, Ohio. Bomb explodes in St. Peter's, Rome. Peary's Polar Expedition returns to Sydney, N. S. Wales. Samuel Gompers re-elected President of the American Federation of Labor. Catholic Cathedral dedicated in Richmond, Va.

Earthquake in Sicily.

Earthquake in Sicily. Remains of supposed tomb of Cicero found near Formia, Italy. Fire in Cornell University (7 killed). Ends of East River tunnel, New York, joined. Pope commands resistance of the new French public worship law. Roosevelt awarded the Nobel prize. Papal secretary at Paris arrested and expelled from France. Senate confirms Algeciras treaty. French law separating Church and State goes into full effect. Roosevelt revokes his order for simplified spelling. Mexican government takes control of the railroads. German Society of Wireless Telegraphy holds wireless communication over distance of 24 miles. Captain Brunsweg wrecks Hamburg-American liner *Viktoria Luise* off Kingston, Jamaica, and commits suicide. James Bryce succeeds Sir Mortimer Durand as British Ambassador to Washing-

ton. Roosevelt issues proclamation asking aid for Chinese famine sufferers. Chinese quarter at Bangkok, Siam, destroyed by fire. Earthquake nearly destroys Kingston, Jamaica. Legislative Assembly of Western Australia votes for secession of the State from the Commonwealth of Australia. Emperor William dissolves the Reichstag for refusing to vote supplies.] Chinese famine.

THE JAMAICA EARTHQUAKE

(A.D. 1907)

H. F. ABELL

MONDAY, January 14, a perfect Jamaica day of bright sunshine and cool breeze, we purposed to spend in Kingston. I knew Kingston well; and its quiet by-streets, with their lingering shadows of the prosperous days of old in the shape of fine old Georgian houses, always had a fascination for me. So, whilst my ladies should do their shopping, I proposed to wander about revisiting old haunts.

Before the trouble began.

Accordingly I passed a long morning in the city. I went to delightful old jasper and marble halls, once the town residences of merchant-princes, now the dilapidated abodes of dusky people; I spent some time watching for sharks at the pier of the Myrtle Bank Hotel; I went to the Museum; I was a long hour in the old parish church, reading anew fine old Benbow's epitaph, which records how this "pattern of true English courage" died from the effects of a wound which he had received in his "legg" in action with Monsieur Du Casse and discovering that a fine old brass candelabra which had been pre-

sented to the parish in Queen Anne's reign by a "merchant" of Kingston had been sold for old metal; and I wound up at the club. In less than three hours each one of these buildings was to be a shattered ruin!

Then instead of remaining in town to lunch, I returned to Constant Spring to see how my ladies were getting on—a provisional change of plan. At 3.25 P. M. such of the hotel guests as were not in town or away on country expeditions were variously whiling away a day which had gradually become almost airless, but which was still radiant with sunshine. Two energetic men—Britons, of course—were playing tennis. Towards them I strolled across the lawn, when suddenly I was staggering about and fancied I had been sunstruck. But when I saw the stretch of lawn in front of me violently agitated into waves, exactly as a carpet is moved by the wind under it, and at the same time a muffled roar like distant artillery filled the air, and when a second later, I saw a huge rent spring, as it were, from the bottom to the top of one of the stone towers of the hotel and then followed a deafening crash and the rising of a cloud of dust, it needed no experience of Japan in past days to tell me the terrible truth.

The sudden calamity.

At once I ran top speed into the hotel and up two flights of stairs to our rooms where my ladies were. I believe there was shaking and crashing all around me, but I neither felt nor

heard; and, to my intense joy, I found my wife and her sister unhurt, but, although perfectly calm and collected, naturally in the greatest alarm. I need not say that a very few minutes sufficed to lead them, half-dressed as they were, into the comparative security of the gardens.

The shock plays strange freaks.

The shock, which lasted about fifteen seconds, had played strange freaks in our rooms, although it had not been spiteful and devastating as in rooms adjoining. Every article of furniture had been shifted from its place; clothes had been lifted bodily from walls to floor; securely fastened trunks and bags had been wrenched open and their contents scattered. The passage outside was strewed with fallen plaster and shattered glass, and in one case a door had been torn off its hinges, whilst a staircase corresponding to that by which we had escaped was blocked with the fallen roof. Only the fact that the wing of the building which we occupied was of wood saved us; and if the shock had taken place in the night, when the hotel was full of guests, the loss of life must have been awful. The main block, forming the main entrance-hall, with three stories of rooms above, was badly shaken and cracked, while the stone tower up which I had seen the rent run was a tottering wreck.

In the garden, every person, white and black, stood silent and wondering what next

would happen. And here let me place on record the splendid conduct of the hotel staff generally, and the black servants in particular. I saw much terror and some panic among the whites; but the poor black people kept their heads to a degree not usually associated with their racial character.

General behavior of the frightened people.

Of what had taken place in the outside world we knew nothing; but the rising of a dense black cloud over Kingston proclaimed catastrophe there. Little by little, as the non-recurrence of bad shocks established calm, the ladies who had been tumbled out of their rooms in every variety of dishabille, began to care for appearance; the black servants were sent into the hotel for trunks and bags, and in no case did these good fellows refuse, although another severe shock would have brought the whole building down upon them.

About an hour after the great shock I drove into Kingston with the Bishop of Barbadoes, on the double errand of ascertaining the fate of his daughter, newly married to an officer in the West India Regiment, and of helping in the city. Directly we emerged in the hotel grounds we saw signs of trouble. A dam had burst somewhere in the hills, and a swift torrent ran down the roadway. Great cracks were visible in the road itself, and as we passed from the country proper into the zone of human habitations, signs of ruin and destruction multiplied. Every structure of brick

In Kingston.

or stone had suffered more or less, with the result that while the houses of the well-to-do were wrecked or badly damaged, the mud-and-timber cabins of the poor were comparatively untouched. The destruction wrought during the few seconds of the earthquake's duration was incredible. Whole sides of houses were lifted away and shattered; a ground story would be wrecked and the upper left intact, and *vice versa;* one brick gate-post and iron gate would be overthrown and the companions remain whole; lines of palisading were as clean shaven off the supporting walls as by a machine. We passed the electric car which runs between Kingston and Constant Spring standing just as its course had been abruptly stopped by the destruction of the dynamo-house in Kingston. Then we began to meet fugitives. We stopped a buggy containing fellow-passengers by the *Port Kingston*—dishevelled, dust-begrimed, and one with head in bandages, all with the grave looks of those who had seen terrible things—and learned that Kingston was practically level with the ground. Then came a cart full of maimed and bleeding people, followed by another with still, draped forms lying in it; then families of blacks carrying their household goods and groups of praying, screaming women.

Freaks of the earthquake.

We entered the stricken city. We had to thread our way between masses of fallen

The stricken city.

roofs and walls, shattered palisades, entanglements of telegraph and telephone wires, crushed buggies, and notably groups of distracted people who rent the air with cries of lamentation, hymns, and entreaties for help. As yet no idea could be found of the number of victims; but so many people implored us to help in removing heaps of ruins beneath which lay relations and friends that we knew it must be very great.

Number of dead unknown.

Down the comparatively broad thoroughfare of King Street, above the masses of ruin, we could see the flames and dense smoke of the fire which was consuming all that quarter of the city which lay parallel with the shore, as well as the coal-stacks of the shipping companies. We reached the great public garden which marks the center of the city. Our wheels brought up sharply against something, and I saw that it was a marble hand holding a marble tall hat belonging to a shattered statue of a former governor. We could not get round to the side on which stood the parish church, but over the trees I could see the spire apparently on the point of toppling over.

The club was a shapeless ruin, and a large church near it was completely destroyed; yet one of the worst-built edifices in Kingston, the hall in which the delegates of the Cotton Conference were assembled at the moment of the earthquake, seemed unharmed. At last

we could make no further progress, and turned to get out as best we could.

Refugee families.

Passing by the racecourse, on which hundreds of refugee families were already assembled with their furniture, we saw a great mass of smoke rising above Up Park Camp, the station of the garrison, and learned that the hospital was on fire. It was known later that more than forty soldier-patients were burned here. So we returned to Constant Spring. Here we found that most of our party had returned from the city and the country. Those who had been out at Spanish Town had been obliged to return by road, for the railway was wrecked, and the greater part of the Kingston terminus had fallen.

As evening gathered over us, and the beauty of the starlit sky was only blurred by the ruddy glare and the dense smoke-cloud of the fire in Kingston, while the hotel people did their best to prepare for us some sort of a meal in the open, a general recounting of adventures took place.

[Mohammed Ali Mirza crowned Shah of Persia. Mine explosion Pinero, Colo. (24 killed). Murder trial of H. K. Thaw begins. New Spanish Conservative Clerical Cabinet formed with Maura as Premier. Russian army evacuates Manchuria. Fifty-six Suffragettes arrested in London for raiding Parliament. Honduras declares war against

Nicaragua. Second Russian Duma assembles. Powder magazine explosion on French battleship *Jena* (103 killed and 150 injured). Central American war ended, Nicaragua victorious. International Peace Congress opens in New York. Enormous skeletons of prehistoric animals unearthed by a blast near Altoona, Pa. Oklahoma State Constitution signed. Order of Knights of Holy Sepulchre instituted by Vatican. Jamestown Ter-Centennial Exposition opens. Birth of Prince of the Asturias, heir to the Spanish throne. Pope authorizes Benedictine Order to revise Vulgate Bible. First Finnish Diet under the new Constitution. King Carlos of Portugal begins an absolutist régime. Second Hague Peace Conference assembles. Korean Emperor abdicates. Treaty surrendering Korea to Japan signed at Seoul.]

Jamestown Ter-Centennial Exposition opens.

JAPAN AND KOREA

(A.D. 1907)

ANGUS HAMILTON

THE position of Korea in regard to Japan is, of course, unfortunate, both geographically and politically. Lying between the territories of China, on the one hand, and the Empire of Japan on the other, the Hermit Kingdom has never been quite free from that intimidating influence by which a paramount Power so frequently manifests its authority. Long years ago, in spite of treaties—possibly in defiance of them—Japan conceived a line of action in Korea and has fashioned it to suit her own interests. Unable to obtain the secession of the territory which she so much desired, communities of her subjects have fringed its borders. They planted themselves wherever there were prospects of trade, until all the main resources of the Empire and the entire control of its commerce were virtually in their hands. Trade followed the flag, whether the Japanese were within the radius of the treaty ports or engaged in forcing the hands of the local officials by settling beyond the limitations of their conventions,

The Hermit Kingdom.

and the success of this activity was soon assured although the Koreans themselves have not been touched by it. It is even a point whether Korea has not profited more from her intercourse with European Powers than with Japan. Foreign Governments, without exception, have respected her territories, while individual Europeans have been instrumental in improving the condition of her agriculture, of her laws and education, of her finances and of her customs. These reforms naturally influenced commerce, but as Korea's trade was controlled by Japan it was the Japanese who benefited by the resulting prosperity. Coincident with them, too, Japan has made Korea the dumping-ground of her surplus population, and there are today no less than one hundred thousand Japanese settlers in the kingdom who, for the most part, are wholly contemptuous of the local Government. Thus, by a process of evolution based upon studied indifference to the wishes, interests and orders of the Korean Government, Japan has overridden Korea, until the long pent-up resentment which accumulated under the process, found its discharge in the troubles of 1904-1907.

Korea's trade controlled by Japan.

In considering the latest development of Japanese action in the Hermit Kingdom, therefore, it is necessary to go back to the time when the conflict of interests in Korea, precipitated as much by Japanese aggression as

by Russian expansion in Manchuria, first indicated the prospect of a Russo-Japanese War. At that date by the terms of the Anglo-Japanese treaty of the 30th January, 1904, an effort was made to secure the commercial, political, and territorial independence of Korea, while by the terms of the Mikado's rescript of the 10th February, issued as a Declaration of War, the necessity of maintaining the independence of Korea, now becomes a *casus belli,* was re-affirmed.

The Anglo-Japanese treaty of 1904.

For the moment, however, Japan had not got complete control of the situation as, occupied with the war in Manchuria, she was unable to devote any portion of her energies to the development of Korea. With the Treaty of Portsmouth the situation in a measure turned, and she was left in undisputed possession of the field. This position was specifically recognized when the Russian Government in Article II of this Russo-Japanese Treaty acknowledging that Japan possessed in Korea paramount political, military, and economic interests, engaged neither to obstruct nor interfere with the measures of guidance, protection and control which the Government of Japan might find it necessary to take. Even then the situation was not altogether determined. While the Japanese Government had been endeavoring since the war began to coerce the Emperor into accepting a Japanese Protectorate, the

Japanese Legation in Seoul had been backing a scheme by which a concession of all the waste lands of the Kingdom was to be granted to Mr. Nagamori, without payment and for a term of fifty years.

Japan in the past had possessed such a monopoly of supply and demand in relation to the requirements of the Koreans that any increase in the advantages of her position destroyed rather than promoted Korean sympathies. Time, and a more diplomatic method of addressing herself to the situation, doubtless might have enabled her to conquer Korean aversion, which sprang for the most part from memories and experiences of irresponsible aggression by Japanese settlers, travelling merchants and others. At the same time the lawlessness of the Japanese, and their careless disregard for the rights of the Koreans, were undoubtedly in favor of the Japanese Government, for Germany, Great Britain, and America, equally with France and China, possessed important commercial rights in Korea. It was at this stage of affairs very unfortunate that the chancelleries of Europe had no very exact information of the character of the Japanese domination of the Korean peninsula, for if the situation had been properly understood, the territorial integrity of Korea today might still be intact and its markets might now be open to the commerce of the world. The chance of any improvement in the direc-

Korean aversion to Japanese.

tion of European interests disappeared when, on the 27th of September, 1905, less than a month after the signing of the Treaty of Portsmouth, the details of a new Anglo-Japanese Treaty were published, of which Clause III—the most pertinent in connection with the situation in Korea—was as follows:

A new Anglo-Japanese treaty.

"Japan possessing paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea, Great Britain recognizes the right of Japan to take such measures of guidance, control and protection in Korea as she may deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance those interests, provided always that such measures are not contrary to the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations."

With the publication of this treaty Japanese diplomacy had won for itself what the war had not brought—the tacit recognition by the Powers of Japan's special position in Korea. Thenceforward Japan became the sole arbiter of the destinies of Korea, to the extreme displeasure and distrust of the Koreans. Events now moved rapidly, and on the 11th of November the Marquis Ito brought to the Emperor of Korea an autographed letter from the Mikado which read as follows:

Japan becomes master of Korea.

The Mikado's letter.

"I, the Emperor of Japan, hereby congratulate your Majesty on the restoration of peace in the Far East, and, in order that the friendly relations existing between our two

nations should become still closer, I hereby send my special ambassador whom I beg you to receive.

"I also wish to assure your Majesty that I shall hereafter guard the integrity of Korea, and vouchsafe the personal safety of the Imperial Household."

Four days later, in a special audience with the Emperor of Korea, the Marquis Ito presented the three following proposals from the Japanese Government for signature: Japan's proposals.

"Article I.—The Korean Department of Foreign Affairs shall be abolished. In future all diplomatic dealings on the part of Korea will be despatched by a council sitting at Tokio.

"Article II.—The Japanese Minister at Seoul shall hereafter be called 'General Superintendent,' or 'Director of Affairs.'

"Article III.—The Japanese Consular representatives at Seoul and at the different ports of Korea shall hereafter be called 'Superintendents.'"

Confronted with the demands of Marquis Ito, the Emperor, with great courage, repudiated the entire transaction, and, although several hours were wasted by the Marquis Ito in stormy protest, the Japanese envoy ultimately was compelled to withdraw. With his retirement, however, the negotiations were simply transferred from the Palace to the Japanese Legation and from there to the Stormy scenes.

Council Chamber of the Korean Cabinet. In spite of threats of immediate execution and undeterred by violent physical coercion, the Ministers supported their Emperor in declining to entertain the Japanese demands. On the 16th Marquis Ito, supported by infantry with drawn bayonets and loaded magazines, assembled all the members of the Cabinet and again repeated his orders that the proposal should be signed. Meantime the Council Chamber had been surrounded by a cordon of Japanese infantry and artillery, a similar demonstration was taking place round the Imperial palace, where the Japanese soldiers were encouraged to invade the Royal apartments. Although panic-stricken, terrorized, and fearing that their lives were to be taken, the Ministers continued to refuse to pay attention to the overtures of the Japanese Minister, the pleadings of the Marquis Ito, or the threats of General Hasegawa. Affairs in the Council Chamber had come to such a pass that the Marquis Ito ordered a vote to be taken, but the opposition was so decided that here again he was defeated. This situation continued throughout the 16th and a good deal of the 17th, but at midnight on the 17th, after vainly threatening the Council, Marquis Ito despatched Japanese police to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to seize the seal of the Foreign Minister. With its arrival one or two of the unimportant ministers began to

Korean Cabinet decline Japanese demands.

THE FUNERAL OF KING CARLOS OF PORTUGAL

PASSING THE SCENE OF THE ASSASSINATION

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weaken; and, ultimately, to cut short the recital of this disgraceful episode, after three days of intimidation, the Ministers for Home Affairs, War, Agriculture, and Education appended their seals, while the Ministers for Finance, Justice, and the Prime Minister, maintained their opposition to the bitter end which, however, was not secured until the Marquis Ito himself affixed the seals of the Foreign Minister to the documents in the early hours of the morning of the 18th November.

Violent as these proceedings were, the action of the Japanese was dictated by the knowledge that the Emperor of Korea, foreseeing the trend of the situation, had despatched in the previous month an American friend, Mr. Homer B. Hulbert, with a letter of protest to the American Government. In the treaty of 1882 between America and Korea the first article was as follows: Treaty of 1882.

"There shall be perpetual peace and friendship between the President of the United States and the King of Chosen, and the citizens and subjects of their respective Governments. If other Powers deal unjustly or oppressively with either Government, the other will exert their good offices, on being informed of the case, to bring about an amicable arrangement, thus showing their friendly feelings.

And it was to this that his Majesty now

pinned his faith. Although the petition of the Emperor arrived in Washington quite safely it failed to arrest the action of the Japanese, who had already announced to the State Department the execution of a voluntary agreement by which Japan had been granted a Protectorate over Korea.

Terrible consequences were to follow this usurpation of authority by the Japanese, which in general has entailed untold misery upon the Koreans. No less than six of the leading officials of the country committed suicide, the principal being Prince Min Yong Whan, an aide-de-camp to the Emperor; while popular resentment was expressed by murderous attacks upon the Ministers whose signatures were purported to be attached to the treaty. Elsewhere, too, under the pretext of strategic requirements, many thousands of farmers have been dispossessed of their lands without indemnity, whole villages have been deported without compensation, while the scum of Japan has settled upon Korea in the enjoyment of a lawless existence. Successive reports from the country described scenes of anarchy in which pillage, rape, and murder have figured prominently. In the capital, as might have been expected, the publication of the Imperial letter resulted in a more rigorous supervision of palace affairs, to the effect that native officials of independent character were dismissed, the various foreign Ministers were

Scenes of anarchy.

recalled, and most of the foreign advisers retired. Throughout 1906 the situation went from bad to worse, and his Majesty was compelled, if he wished to preserve any semblance of authority, to meet Japanese coercion by intrigue. With a faith that is almost sublime he decided to appeal yet once more to the Powers, and arranged privately in the spring of 1907 to despatch an envoy to the Hague Conference. Details of this act are so well known that they call for no further mention, although the Emperor's conduct served as a pretext for the Japanese to bring about a complete upheaval of the late régime, and, accordingly, on the 19th July his Majesty was deposed in favor of the Crown Prince, while on the 26th July the following treaty was proclaimed:

The King of Korea deposed.

"The Governments of Japan and Korea, animated by a desire promptly to develop the wealth and strength of Korea, and increase the welfare of the Korean people, agree as follows:

(1) The Government of Korea will follow the guidance of the Resident-General in administrative reforms.

(2) Legislative enactments and important administrative measures shall be forthwith approved by the Resident-General.

(3) Judicial affairs shall be distinguished from ordinary administrative affairs.

(4) The appointment or dismissal of high

Korean officials shall be subject to the consent of the Resident-General.

(5) Korea shall engage as Korean officials Japanese recommended by the Resident-General.

(6) Korea shall not engage foreigners without the consent of the Resident-General.

(7) The first clause of the agreement concluded on the 22nd August, 1904, shall be abrogated."

The passing of Korea.

With the publication of this treaty one must recognize presumably the passing of Korea, although in acknowledging its disappearance it is perhaps permissible to deplore the methods by which the result has been obtained. The treaty speaks for itself, and in many ways, is a measure frankly hostile to foreign influence both in its scope and its future application. It is difficult indeed to find in the promise of its unwritten intention any expression of consideration for the welfare of Korea or for the foreign interests which so long have been associated with the Hermit Kingdom. Indeed, in reflecting upon its terms, it is almost possible to imagine that the Japanese have forgotten the great obligation to Western capital under which they exist. Without the support of British, French, German, and American funds Japan could not have become the sponsor of Europe for the satisfactory solution of the Korean problem. Yet, in place of the principle of

the open door and the doctrine of equal opportunity to which Japan indirectly pledged herself when she placed the interests of Europe in Korea upon a level with her own, each successive treaty of recent years has disclosed a further modification of the position at one time held in Korea by the trade of the Occident. The assistance of the West, so freely offered in Japan's hour of distress, thus has been instrumental in creating a position for Japan in Korea in which the Occident will not participate.

[1907: Coney Island fire. Accident on new bridge over St. Lawrence, near Quebec (70 killed). Earthquake in Calabria (250 killed). Ramsay degrades copper into helium. Conflagration in Manila. Floods in Japan. British bill permitting a man to marry his deceased wife's sister becomes a law. Grand Vizier of Persia assassinated. Strike riots in Antwerp. Pageant in Oxford. Great Eastern railway steamer *Berlin* stranded at Hook of Holland. International meteorological researches with balloons discover new facts regarding temperature of upper air currents. Secretary Taft is a guest of Japan. Compulsory education edict issued in China. Marconi wireless station in Nova Scotia picks up a message from Manila. Lusitania breaks trans-Atlantic record from Queenstown to Sandy Hook (4 days, 20 hours). First direct cable from New York

Quebec bridge falls.

to Havana completed. Great Cullinan Diamond presented to King Edward by the people of the Transvaal. Central American Peace Conference assembles in Washington. President signs State Constitution of Oklahoma. Gustave V. becomes King of Sweden on death of King Oscar. 1908: First train passes through East River Tunnel, New York. Assassination of the King of Portugal and Crown Prince. Manuel proclaimed King of Portugal. Resignation and flight of Portuguese Premier.]

King and Crown Prince of Portugal assassinated.

THE LISBON ASSASSINATION

(A.D. 1908)

JEAN FINOT

IN RECENT years the decline of Portugal has been striking, although Dom Carlos had many qualities which ought to have made him an excellent king. A distinguished *littérateur,* a skilled connoisseur, a delicate and agreeable conversationalist, he had a wide enough range of knowledge to make a good monarch. But he was among the worst. The Portuguese people were absolutely at one in their very slight esteem for their king. He felt it, and enjoyed exasperating the people's feelings. Decline of Portugal.

Early in the year a representative of the Paris "Temps" was in Lisbon. The King sent for him and confided to him a manifesto which criticized the Portuguese nation and country. It was published in France and provoked an outburst of rage. Conservatives, Progressives, Reformers, Republicans, all who read and thought, strongly condemned this act of the King. Toward the end of January, I heard maledictions by the hundred against the unhappy King, who had forgotten the elementary duties of a sovereign. Every word of his A secret manifesto.

Popular outburst of rage.

manifesto was interpreted in a sense humiliating to the country. The disesteem of the people, which made an ever-widening gulf between them and their sovereign, exasperated the monarch. Brave to a fault, Dom Carlos used to walk about the streets of his capital alone without escort, everywhere meeting looks of hostility, indifference, or even disgust from the passers-by. Thus he threw in the face of his people an insult which they longed to avenge in his blood.

The King's character.

The King, though mild in character, fast and not serious, had the pride of a demiurge lodged in an empty mind. He sought oblivion in orgies sufficiently innocent, but which in Lisbon, a large provincial town, were thought the fêtes of a Nero. In truth, he was bored. He courted all the pretty women, and was always dreaming of foreign travel.

Having thus lost touch with the people, he failed to see that his extravagance alienated all sympathy. He dared to accept the gift which Franco offered him in the form of an increase of the Civil List (about a million francs). The country was not thereby the poorer nor the nearer to ruin, but the mode of the transaction, done without Parliament, gave it so awkward a look that all the honest part of the country turned away still more from the royal family.

His unpopularity.

There was one man in Portugal equal to saving the situation: it was João Franco. He

was as much hated as the King was looked down upon. He was in the habit of avoiding society, wholly absorbed in his duties; always on the *qui vive* for attacks and conspiracies, he had to defend himself against both his old enemies and the friends who were always deserting him. There were daily rumors of arrests. Bombs were found both at Lisbon and in provincial towns. Attacks on the police were reported. Men talked of conspiracies extending all over the country. Newspapers were suspended by turns. Under a special law it was too dangerous to speak against the King. But the hatred of the journals grew more violent against Franco. The dictator took no one's advice. His ministers, reduced to the rôle of walking gentlemen, enthusiastic but passive, obeyed his orders blindly. Franco became the real master of Portugal, a master the more to be dreaded because he held in his hands the whole political and administrative life of the country.

João Franco and his doings.

Talk of conspiracies.

On one occasion he said to me: "Our country has suffered and suffers still from administrative corruption. There is too much extravagance and too many abuses. I shall have to reform much of the machinery and get new laws passed; and when some years hence people see what I have accomplished they will excuse my brutalities and violations of the Constitution. A little energy will get the better of passing discontent. You must do vio-

Sufferings of the country.

lence to the ground before you can sow it. It is necessary to give Portugal a salutary shake, which will put fresh life into an organism which is prematurely old."

Opponents of the dictator.

I had an opportunity of conversing with several opponents of the dictator. All admitted that, detestable though he was as a politician, his personal character was not open to attack. He prevented others from enriching themselves at the expense of the state, but he did not enrich himself. They told me many lively stories of this plunder of the state to which Franco had put an end.

The King did not count any longer and Franco was hated. The Crown Prince, Luiz Filippe, was neutral and colorless; the people relied on him less than ever. While the court was surrounded by indifference and hatred, there was one member of the royal family who enjoyed the favor of the crowd—

Queen Maria Pia.

Queen Maria Pia. Married at fourteen, she came to Lisbon with all the glory of her father, Victor Emmanuel. She indeed played with the popular favor. Her prodigality is proverbial. Her treasury is depleted; she is troubled about it at times, but has not resolution enough to stop her expenditure. The people complain, but they do not want anything done about Maria Pia because she is a "true queen." Above all, she is majestic. A true daughter of kings, she is good-natured and generous.

The other queen? Still young and distinguished-looking, she brought with her to Lisbon a royal, a divine beauty. She is without doubt the most beautiful woman who has ever reigned over Portugal. Ever since she came she has tried to win all hearts. Amiable and prepossessing, she is careful to ignore, not to accentuate, distinctions of rank. She is as economical as the dowager is prodigal. Nevertheless, the Portuguese prefer Maria Pia. Queen Amélie is a Clerical, which offends the people. Queen Amélie unpopular.

The "Journal Officiel" of Saturday, the first of February, published a law of "public security," the most arbitrary that Portugal had ever known. The country upon this seemed quite beside itself. In the best-informed circles grave consequences were expected; but what kind of consequences none could say. Law of public security.

The Portuguese assassinations were unmatched in their sort in all the secular record of the murder of kings. The scene was the street of a southern capital at the hour when life seems most familiar and alive. In the open carriage Queen Amélie held in her hand the bouquet of flowers which her little godchild had just given her on the quay. Her husband was beside her. Her sons were opposite. In a flash the irrevocable has happened. One assassin with a repeating rifle is firing into the King's neck, while Queen Amélie attempts with her bouquet to beat down a A sad and tragic scene.

fatal arm. When she turns round, her first-born is already wounded to death by one of the conspirators on right or left; and it is probable that before he was hit he had killed his father's murderer with one of the shots from the four empty chambers of his revolver. In that moment Queen Amélie stands between Dom Carlos and the Crown Prince, who are gone forever. And in that moment Manuel, a boy of eighteen, has become King.

The diplomatists were all at a party at the French Legation when the news arrived. In a corner, apart from every one, stood Franco. The courtiers avoided him; the Ministers dared not go near their chief; pale and haggard, he yet mastered himself and gave the last orders. He exclaimed: "They have killed my King and with him they have killed his Minister."

Franco's sorrow.

[1908: Pennsylvania railroad completes its first tube under East River Tunnel, New York, at Long Island City. Haitien revolutionary plot suppressed. Disastrous earthquake in Southern Mexico. Arbitration treaty between Great Britain and United States signed in Washington. Premier Asquith announces re-organized British Cabinet. Conflagration in Chelsea, Boston, renders 10,000 homeless (15 killed, loss $5,575,000). Floods in Hankow, China (2,000 lives and 700 junks lost). Roosevelt advocates building of four

battleships. Tornadoes in Southern States (450 killed). American liner *St. Paul* sinks British cruiser *Gladiator* off Isle of Wight (23 drowned). Centenary of the Roman Catholic arch-diocese of New York celebrated. Japanese training cruiser *Matsushima* sunk by explosion (200 drown). Fire in Atlanta ($1,500,000 loss). Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin receives a constitution. Francis Joseph celebrates 60th year of his reign. Wreck of express train in Antwerp (60 killed). Flood in Oklahoma and Texas. Mulai Hafid, Pretending Sultan of Morocco, takes Fez. Taft resigns as Secretary of War. Persian troops and Cossacks take Teheran. Roosevelt orders troops to Rio Grande to enforce neutrality against Mexican revolutionists. Conflagration in Port-au-Prince, Haiti. Pontifical decree makes important changes in the Roman Catholic church constitution. Heavy frost in Mexico ($10,000,000 loss). Venezuela severs diplomatic relations with the United States. Obaldia elected Second President of Panama. Fire in Rochester, N. Y. ($125,000 loss). Maine forest fires ($500,000 loss). Floods in Asia Minor (2,000 drowned). Celebration of 300th anniversary of Quebec. British House of Lords passes Old Age Pensions bill. Prince of Wales visits Quebec. Revolt of "Young Turks." Sultan of Turkey grants constitution and Parliament.]

Revolt of "Young Turks."

THE RISE OF THE YOUNG TURKS

(A.D. 1908)

ANGUS HAMILTON

WHEN Abdul Hamid ascended the throne of the Osmanlis as Sultan of Turkey he was without any preparation for the high office which the hapless fate of his immediate predecessors had rendered vacant. Without training, without a single friend whom he could trust, surrounded by those who had deposed his uncle Abdul Aziz and driven to insanity his own brother Murad, Abdul Hamid found the integrity of Turkey assailed upon all sides, whilst he himself appeared to be the least fitting person to forestall the calamities which were impending.

Turkey in 1876.

With the deposition of his uncle, the knell of the Ottoman Empire seemed to have sounded. War with Russia loomed across the frontier; the atrocities in Bulgaria had filled Europe with gasping horror; Montenegro and Servia were in conflict. When the recluse, drawn from his retreat among Mullahs and Imams, became installed in Yildiz, there was not a Power in the world that would assist him, nor was there an official upon whom

he could rely. The treasury had been depleted by the extravagances of Abdul Aziz, and could no longer remit the interest on the coupon. No new loan was possible, yet armies were urgently needed to restrain Servia and Montenegro, while there was no portion of the Empire which was not threatened. Greece was menacing in the south, Russia in the north and east, Austria in the west, and a European Commission had been appointed to inquire into the finances of Turkey—the Commission whose labors established the Ottoman Bank and the Dette Publique. The first sitting had just begun when, on December 23d, 1876, salvos of artillery were heard and Safet Pacha, the President of the Conference, explained that they were to celebrate the promulgation of a Constitution.

"A great act," said he, "is being accomplished at this hour . . . . It inaugurates a new era for the happiness and prosperity of the people."

Promulgation of the Constitution.

The Constitution was the work of Midhat Pacha, the Grand Vizier and one of the first of the "Young Turks." Midhat had been a leader of the Palace conspiracy in which Abdul Aziz was assassinated, and he had exacted from Murad a pledge to promulgate a Constitution. He helped the present Sultan to get rid of Murad, and thus it came about that the worst political reactionary of all the Sultans began his reign with a proclamation

which described "the aspiration of France and the practice of England." Called into existence on December 23, 1876, the Turkish parliament met in March, 1877, and passed away in February of 1878 by order of the Sultan and by virtue of Article 44 of the Constitution, which reserved to the throne the right of closing both houses at its pleasure.

The reform movement in Turkey from its earliest phase has been marked by the warring policies of one or other of the different Constitutional factions. To-day the Young Turks are united over what in 1876-78 precipitated disaster; but although the Softas helped Midhat at the outset of his task in August, 1876, they petitioned the Grand Vizier against the clauses of the Constitution which extended citizenship to the Christian elements. Objecting to the military obligations involved in the proposed emancipation of the Christians, the Greek and Armenian Patriarchs were also roused against the contemplated measure, which was to the liking of no party and due solely to the political prescience of Midhat himself. With singular sagacity he realized that the equality of all races and creeds before the law was the sole prospect of salvation remaining to Turkey, and with his fall from office an end was put temporarily to the constitutional movement.

Sagacity of Midhat Pacha.

If with the downfall of Midhat the fortunes of the Young Turks' movement lan-

guished, there was a revival of activity during the nineties. In the following years, too, quite a number of committees of progressive men of various blood, speech, and faith came into existence—both inside and outside the Ottoman Empire. For a time Paris and Geneva were the chief centres of the organization in Europe, and when papers appeared in support of the interests of the party a direct appeal to European opinion was made by the moderate tone of their statements upon the aims and purposes of the Young Turks. By degrees, however, converts were gained in the outlying areas of the Ottoman dominions in Eastern Europe, in Asia Minor and in Egypt and new branches of the parent society grew up in which a more militant note was imparted to the propaganda of the party than was favored in Paris and Geneva. Thus rifts had already begun to appear in the platform of the Young Turks when some forty-seven representative delegates assembled at Paris in 1902, under the presidency of Prince Sahab-Eddin, to discuss reforms and the future of the party. In December, 1907, a Second Congress of Young Turks was called. Among the groups who despatched delegates were the Ottoman Committee of Union and Progress, the Armenian Revolutionary Federation, the Ottoman League of Private Initiative of Decentralization and Constitution and the Israelite Committee of Egypt. After

First Congress of Young Turks.

Second Congress of Young Turks.

exhaustive discussion, in which the principle of moderation was admitted to be more in accordance with the general interests of the fraternity than the existing methods of the revolutionaries, a working agreement was made between the Moderate element and the various Armenian, Jewish, and Macedonian revolutionary committees.

Although discrepancies still existed between the respective views of the active branches and the governing body, much disagreement was made to disappear, and the Ottoman Committee of Union and Progress, working avowedly for the affirmation of the Midhatian principle of racial and religious equality in Turkey, became potential head of the Young Turks. For a time, at all events, the situation was saved in the interests of the Moderate element, and the following principles were agreed upon as worthy of general acceptance by the several groups as the result of the Conference:

(1) The abdication of the Sultan Abdul Hamid; (2) Radical change of the present *régime;* (3) Establishment of a Parliament.

The programme.

Such a programme obviously pointed to revolution at some future date, and, while counsels of moderation still proceeded from the Ottoman Committee of Union and Progress, elaborate preparations against possible eventualities were made in Turkey itself. For the nonce the leaders of the movement

continued to reside abroad, actively engaged in pursuit of their plans and insistent upon the peaceful character of their intentions. In every village a committee was formed for the enlistment of members, while at the same time it was empowered to act upon its own initiative in the adjustment of grievances. It is to the divided control which this arrangement created that so many of the recent disorders can be attributed, for the local committees, unmindful of the intricacies of the international situation, were not always able to appreciate the fact that the principle of the movement was aggressive, while its methods were passive.

Picturesque oaths.

The oaths subscribed by the members partook of the picturesqueness that is usually associated with secret societies. A revolver and a knife were placed upon a Koran, which was held to the forehead of the new member as he repeated in solemn tones:

"I swear in the name of God and Mohammed that I will fight for nationality, freedom, and truth while a drop of blood remains in my body."

With this oath taken, the member then paid his tax and undertook to provide himself with a rifle and to be prepared to abandon family, work and friends at any moment that he was called upon to fight for the cause. Moneys, derived from the taxation to which the members were subject, accruing from

donations or obtained in the course of operations, were to be devoted primarily to the purchase of arms, ammunition and stores, and secondly to the support of the families of those members who might be killed during the course of the revolution.

Although Christians were not allowed at first to participate in the movement, at a later date they were permitted to become affiliated with it, when they were conceded the right to carry arms and to contribute to the funds, but were compelled to subscribe a different oath. To Mussulmans and Christians alike the committees recommended:

Recommendations of the committees.

(1) Armed resistance to acts of the authorities; (2) Non-armed resistance by means of political and economic strikes, strikes of officials, police, etc.; (3) Refusal to pay taxes; (4) Propaganda in the army; soldiers to be asked not to march against the people or the revolutionaries; (5) General insurrection. Although conditions in Turkey caused the programme of the Young Turks to be hailed with satisfaction, the cause possessed little prospect of success so long as the mutual antipathies of the various peoples were preserved. Race prejudice so dominates the conditions of the Nearer East that it has become a factor of great importance in the administration of the country, and one, too, which the Sultan has invariably turned to his advantage. Hitherto no attempt has been made to meet

racial prejudices on the common ground of some mutual understanding, and it was because racial unity was unknown that the problem of Macedonia remained unsolved. Perhaps the most remarkable of the changes which have taken place in the last few weeks in the dominions of the Sultan are those which have accompanied the Turkish rendering of the cry, "One Flag, One People." Hitherto such an outburst would have been as unintelligible as it would have proved unexpected, for the divers races regarded the Sultan with indifference and each other with contempt. Yet under the influence of the agents of the Young Turks a racial solidarity has been achieved which of itself has gone some way toward securing the defeat of the Sultan.

"One Flag, One People."

It is impossible to state at what point in their plans the Young Turks were assured of the co-operation of the various races, but it must be obvious to any one with the most perfunctory knowledge of Turkey, that once this particular question had been adjusted, the plans of the Young Turks were destined to prevail. Aside from this aspect of the situation, the conditions of life in Turkey long since had approached the sum total of misery that the human machine could endure. Tyranny in every form flourished, poverty was universal, and each grade of society was the victim of the one above it. For years the

Social conditions in Turkey.

burden of an intolerant autocracy, in which freedom of speech was denied, liberty of movement was impossible and human life was never safe, has been borne without complaint.

In a measure these things sprang from the Sultan, in whom suspicion was innate and whose spies were everywhere. In the public office, in the harem, in the street, in the dining-room, in the baths, wherever one went, whatever one did, the secret emissaries of the Sultan were there to report. To espionage Abdul Hamid has given his choicest thoughts, and the system of surveillance which he organized with the power of his private means was a wonderful yet terrible piece of machinery.

A Reign of Terror.

Through it no father could trust his sons, nor a master his servants, for Abdul Hamid had proved that no one was beyond suspicion nor above temptation. As a consequence, the lives of the highest and of the lowest of his subjects were affected in a most remarkable manner. A feeling of constraint permeated everywhere, influencing the simplest actions and the most unconsidered speech, until life became, from the capital itself to the most distant confines of the empire, a constant horror, unenjoyable even by the spies themselves, as the Sultan was too astute to place any credence in the evidence of the spy that had not himself been spied upon.

To a system of delation that was marvellous in the perfection to which it attained, the Sul-

tan added a policy that was based upon corruption and regulated by favoritism. The worst methods of Eastern despotism have prevailed for years past at Yildiz, where for many reasons it would have been better to have regarded the court as aboriginal and Asiatic. From his earliest youth Abdul Hamid has always gone in fear of assassination, and partially on this ground he has chosen to administer the government of his empire single-handed. If the pressure which such a system of centralization naturally produces proclaims the Sultan of Turkey to be among the hardest worked of contemporary sovereigns, it also prepared the way for systematic abuses which arose from the impossibility of the task that he had set himself.

Abdul Hamid's fear of assassination.

[1908: Riot against Europeans in India (20,000 mill-workers strike in Bombay). Typhoon in Canton, China, drowns 300. Asiatic cholera breaks out in Volga region, Russia. Zeppelin makes record flight in airship from Friedrichshafen to Mayence (250 miles), balloon explodes next day. Resignation of new Turkish Grand Vizier and Ministry. Race riots in Springfield, Ill. Sultan Abd-el-Aziz of Morocco loses throne to his brother Mulai Hafid in battle. Lusitania breaks her own record (4 days, 15 hours, 25 minutes). Prussian Government grants higher education to women. Flood in Augusta, Ga.,

kills 50 (losses $2,500,000). Orville Wright begins to break heavier-than-air aeroplane records. Tolstoi celebrates 80th birthday. Forest fires in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. Cholera in St. Petersburg. Disastrous floods near Hyderabad, India. Two-cent postage with British Isles begins. International Congress on Tuberculosis at Washington. Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina. Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria proclaims independence of Bulgaria and assumes title of Czar. Crete proclaims its union with Greece. Philadelphia ends celebration of its 225th anniversary with historical pageant. Typhoon in Chang-Chow destroys 1,100 lives. Forest fires in Wisconsin and Michigan, relief train wrecked (50 killed). Emperor of Germany accepts resignation of Chancellor von Bülow. William H. Taft elected President of the United States. Radbod mine explosion near Hamm, Germany, kills 400. Gen. Jose Miguel Gomez elected President of Cuba. Prince Chun made Regent of China. Pu Yi proclaimed Emperor of China on death of Emperor Kwang Hsu. Death of Dowager Empress Tsu Hsi.]

William H. Taft elected President of the United States.

THE LATE DOWAGER EMPRESS OF CHINA

(A.D. 1908)

E. J. DILLON

TRUTH becomes stranger than fiction, history more fascinating than romance when the late Dowager Empress of China is the biographer's theme. For Tsu Hsi was one of those massive world-figures—demiurges of Fate one might perhaps term them—whom the ancients were wont to worship and the moderns are willing to immortalize. As a Hibernian admirer of hers once remarked: "We have to go back to very ancient times for a parallel to Tsu Hsi and even then we do not find one." A sketch of the main episodes of her living and striving, her reverses and triumphs, painted in colors sufficiently deep yet faithful to the tones of history would stir the souls of impressible readers with strong emotions. For despite many serious defects during her first regency Tsu Hsi, then in the flower of her age, indulged, it is said, in the passions of a Messalina and the cruelty of a Bluebeard, putting several of her obscure favorites to death. *A priori* the story may be true. It is safe to assume, however, that many acts of the regent, which

Cruelty of Tsu Hsi.

Europeans would condemn and Chinese condone, have been magnified by enemies into heinous crimes. As a Western critic once cautiously put it, "half the calumnies spread about the lady are in all probability untrue." Doubtless Tsu Hsi perpetrated crimes enough to kindle raptures of moral indignation in the West.* But it would be well to remember that she had not only no scruples of any sort, but no indwelling source of any. A conscience formed no part of her equipment. She dwelt beyond the domain of right and wrong.

Tung Chi.

At last Tsu Hsi's son, Tung Chi, the source of all her power and prestige, had come to man's estate, and duly assumed the reins of government. Affection for his mother was not among his virtues, nor clearness of political vision among his talents. Moreover, Tsu Hsi had political as well as personal grounds for regretting his advent to power. Overfond of sensual pleasures, he had lived the life of the harem until his mental and physical vigor was sapped. The morbid languor of his character was thus heightened by nervous disorders. His mother despised, his friends pitied him, whereas patriotic politicians—and there have always been some such in China—gave their pity to the nation and their contempt to the dynasty.

* For revealing to the Japanese the secret treaty between Russia and China, which I published in England, she had several men sawed to pieces.

The end came somewhat suddenly after a colorless reign of a few months. One bitter cold night the melancholy sound of gongs resounded throughout the palace. Princes, eunuchs, mandarins, hastened to the bedside of the dying ruler. Speechless and motionless, but open-eyed, Tung Chi lay on his couch of State. His mother led in a little boy of three. By the side of the agonizing monarch stood his private secretary, about to read aloud the last will "of his Majesty." By this document, the contents of which the Emperor himself probably learned now for the first time, he appointed as his successor his nephew there, the child of three, during whose nonage the two Empresses were to exercise the office of regents.

Tung Chi's successor.

During Tsu Hsi's second regency (1875-1889) several of the figures in the foreground of the drama change. Prince Kung, for instance, fades gradually into the twilight of oblivion. Li Hung Chang—one of the most genial and venal Ministers China ever had—takes his place and bulks ever larger in public view. The chief consort of Hsien Feng died in 1881, leaving Tsu Hsi, her first rival and subsequent ally, sole regent and absolute ruler of the vast Empire. Liberal progress was the active principle of statesmanship underlying most of what the regents did and avoided, but it was a progress adapted to China's needs as apprehended by the Manchu brain of Tsu

Tsu Hsi's second regency.

Hsi. European science was cultivated; schools were opened; intercourse with foreign nations spread over a widening field; grandiose projects were conceived and begun. In a word, an impetus was given which moved China toward the culture of her enemies, the barbarians, its force being fitfully moderated by the hand that created it.

Things were in this fluid state when Kwang-Su came of age. Still full of life and projects at the age of fifty-five, the Manchu Semiramis made way for the new Emperor, retired from the regency, and had a palace built for herself in the west end of Peking. As two of her intimate friends, Li Hung Chang and Kung, remained to advise the monarch and to deal with foreign Powers, no striking changes were noticeable during the first years of the new reign. Tsu Hsi, however, aware of the shortcomings of the crowned weakling, kept a sharp watch on him and his surroundings. In 1894 the rivalry between Japan and China degenerated into a dispute, and the dispute threatened to culminate in war. The Dowager Empress, realizing how unprepared the Government was to withstand the power of Japan, favored a pacific settlement of the misunderstanding, whereas the Emperor was for going ahead and giving way to no one. The upshot is a matter of history.

The crowned weakling.

One of the results of the inevitable defeat

was to make the country a prey to almost every whipper-snapper among Western nations. Before the war people had been struck with the fact that China was a Colossus. After the Treaty of Shimonoseki they had eyes only for its feet of clay. Territory was annexed almost without a pretext. "Spheres of influence" were mapped out without ceremony. State disputed with State over the future division of the spoil. In a word, vivisection was the fate reserved for China. At the same time foreign influence began to make itself felt in education, social aspirations, political ideals. The personification of the new spirit at court was Kang-yu-wei, an idealist from Canton, whose programme may be described as the algebra of reform. He would have broken with the past in a twinkling, made a clean slate of everything in a jiffy, and regenerated the nation by a stroke of the pen. The pithless ruler was hypnotized by the amiable fanatic, who contrived to win over men of more independent character than Kwang-Su. The two formed a grandiose scheme to rejuvenate the Chinese nation, and resolved to begin by seizing the one personage of mark who would have thwarted their design. Tsu Hsi was to be arrested first and then—!

"Spheres of influence."

A new spirit at court.

The algebra of reform.

The Emperor sent for Yuan-Shi-Kai, the commander of the troops in Tientsin, and talked the matter over with him. Now this moderate reformer was devoted to Tsu Hsi,

body and soul, and he forthwith informed her of the plot. The Emperor had an edict ready to be promulgated on September 23d, commanding all officials from the third rank downwards to cut their pigtails and wear European dress. The Empress did not let grass grow under her feet. While she was still supposed to be in the Summer Palace she appeared in Peking and resumed the sceptre. On September 20th, she had Kwang-Su's palace surrounded by soldiers, and on the following day he signed an edict restoring to her the regency. Kang-yu-wei escaped, his brother. fourteen eunuchs and five accomplices were put to death, the Emperor was sent to an island and Tsu Hsi began the third period of her regency.

The Empress thwarts the plots.

This narrow escape of the Empress from the toils and of the Empire from the follies of the men who personified the foreign spirit, dampened her enthusiasm for western reform. And for a time her wrath against the reformers was intense. Tsu Hsi's emotional changes were often abrupt. She could pass from love to hate, from gratitude to revenge, in a twinkling, for beneath the winsome grace and softness of a sorceress lay a tiger-like fierceness which it was easy to arouse. And here there was great provocation. Had Kang's plot succeeded, Tsu Hsi would certainly have lost her liberty and possibly her life. Moreover, among remoter consequences of the

A Chinese sorceress.

coup, the political fabric would probably have been pulled to pieces by feuds within and onslaughts from without. As it was a number of secret societies were springing up throughout the Empire, some of them organized by foreign enemies, others supported by foreign gold, and all of them starting from the need of reform and aiming at the overthrow of the reigning house. Taking these things to heart, or rather to mind, Tsu Hsi cast about for a breakwater against the influx of foreign influence which she felt must ultimately come. And she found it in the stubborn conservatism of old China. It was Hobson's choice. Westerners attribute to a settled and imperfectly disguised hatred of the "foreign devil" this temporary change of front. But no scheme of polity devised by Tsu Hsi was based on sentiment or theory. In all her schemes she valued foreigners and Chinamen not at their supposed intrinsic worth, but solely as more or less serviceable instruments, as means to an end. At the same time, however, in the conception and pursuit of that end, she took care not to swerve from the main current of Chinese life and interests, otherwise she would never have been able to draw so fully as she did on the limited sources of national energy.

Hatred of the "foreign devil."

Ukase after ukase was launched, unravelling the tangle made by Kang-yu-wei. Retrogression now appeared to be the fundamental "plank" in the Empress's political

programme. But in truth it was only a return to a more moderate *tempo*. Tsu Hsi remained a progressist to the end. When Li Hung Chang had built the first railway there was a loud outcry against the innovation in the country: the censors especially clamored for its destruction. But Tsu Hsi encouragingly said to Li: "You go on with the railways, and I will look after the censors." And now she ordered the building of new lines to continue. She inaugurated a university in Peking; she extended the rights of domicile conferred on Europeans; she threw open new ports to foreign trade; she permitted steamers to navigate the Yangtse Kiang; she abolished many abuses in the levying of *likin* or internal duties on foreign goods; she gave a fillip to national education; she improved postal communication; in a word, she made it clear that she, too, was a reformer; but a reformer whose device was *festina lente*. True, she may have looked upon European civilization as a poison which had to be taken *nolens volens*. She certainly dominated it very gradually and in homœopathic doses. She may also have set down most whites as "ultramarine devils," whom policy forced her to treat as men.

Tsu Hsi a progressist.

If that was Tsu Hsi's impression, the Great Powers did nothing to efface it. They went on employing western culture and religion as coloring ingredients in a formidable solvent

of the political and social fabric. They were eager to "civilize" the nation on condition that they might take and govern it as well. The disintegration of the Empire was the main object of Europe's Far Eastern policy; and the leasing of Kiao Chau by Germany was but the prelude. To China the danger was imminent and formidable. It was heightened by the presence of "traitors" within the walls. Tsu Hsi's empire, dynasty, and person were jeopardized. And the only force on which she could lean to withstand foreign aggression was that of the Old China party, which, respectable enough in the Council Chamber, was degenerating on the field into the semi-scenic crowd of fanatical Boxers. Self-defence, family feeling, and patriotism impelled the Empress to support the champions of the nation, the dynasty, and her person. She had no alternative. That she ended by favoring the Boxers while moderating their fury was a resolution which the unbiassed historian, having explored all the elements of the problem, will place to the credit side of her account. The escape of the embassies from the intermittent bombardment, which, in the opinion of competent judges, was her own personal achievement, should also be reckoned among her good deeds.

The Old China party.

Tsu Hsi was an artistic nature endowed with the rare gift of seeing things as they are, and with the power of winnowing the lighter

from the weightier facts, and thinking both into order and clearness. She had also the secret—most precious to a sovereign—of touching the right stops of the human soul for the music, gay or sad, which she wanted to produce. And men, the most serious—like Li Hung Chang and Yuan Shi Kai—thrilled to her magic touch. She appealed with almost equal force to the nobler and to the baser human instincts, and, it must be added with equal readiness, for the qualms of moral scruple never stung her, the be-all and end-all of her nature lying wholly within the realm of the real. To her British critics, she has, rightly or wrongly, been ever an enigma. Tsu Hsi was not only a commanding personality in her age and country, but she was also endowed with some of the sterling qualities of absolute greatness. Like the green leaf of the lotus that sprouts up from the slime, she raised herself aloft by innate worth, tact, and will-power from nothingness to a dizzy height, where she maintained herself for forty years in spite of the rigorous prohibition of her country's laws and the stern disapproval of her countries enemies. Alone she fought the battle of individuality against a nation of 400 millions of living men and myriads of the dead, whose spirits are still quick and influential there. And by dint of energy, resourcefulness, and perseverance she scored a signal victory over them all.

Tsu Hsi's magic touch.

They cannot forgive her for silencing Kwang-Su and setting back, as they think, liberal progress in China. History may dispel this impression by showing that the result and perhaps also the aim of her policy was to further progress, whereas Kwang-Su's rash haste might have led to anarchic dissolution. And history will add that Tsu Hsi was a reformer to the end of the chapter. She forbade the consumption of opium, abolished the practice of foot-binding,* put Manchus and Chinese on a footing of equality, authorizing marriages between them, and adopting the principle of race parity even in the Council of State, to which she appointed three Chinamen and three Manchus.† She also proclaimed the principle of obligatory instruction, and granted provincial autonomy as a stepping-stone to a constitution. Nay, she did away with absolutism by bestowing upon her subjects a constitution to be embodied in political institutions after the lapse of nine years. Surely no Chinese Gladstone could have accomplished more than this.

She abolished practice of foot-binding.

Thus Tsu Hsi, who was the first Empress, was also the last autocrat of China, an autocrat by nature as well as by law. In a country

*This custom existed only for Chinese women, not for the Manchus. Tsi Hsi herself had, therefore, normal feet.

†The Chinamen were the great reformer Yuan Shi Kai, the honest statesman Chang Chih Tung—he who was Li Hung Chang's opponent—and Lu Chuan Lin. The Manchus were Prince Ching, Prince Chung, and Shih Sur, Minister of the Imperial household.

where centuries of peaceful toil and military quiescence had contributed to the decay of energetic passions, she was an epitome of much that was great in healthy human kingship. And her death was worthy of her life. Such was Tsu Hsi's zeal for the public service that during her last agony she insisted on being present at a State Council, and, lying dressed on her couch, she took such part in its deliberations as the rapid advance of her malady permitted. For the freshness of her soul was unimpaired in a body that years had enfeebled and disease undermined: "I can bear no more," were the last articulate sounds that passed her lips. A few minutes later the columnar figure that had dominated China for over forty years had faded to a memory and a shadow. And the Dalai Lama bent down over her pale, rigid face in silent prayer.

Death of Tsu Hsi.

[First Roman Catholic Missionary Congress in this country. Death of the Grand Duke Alexis, uncle of the Czar. Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary celebrates his Diamond Jubilee. Eighth Satellite of Jupiter discovered. Earthquake and tidal wave in Italy destroys 150,000 lives and wipes out Messina and Reggio.]

THE MESSINA EARTHQUAKE

(A.D. 1908)

CHARLES DAVISON

HOW far the earthquake was felt is not definitely known, but that the disturbed area was comparatively small is borne out by several accounts. At Palermo, for instance, which is only 125 miles from the Messina center, a sharp shock was felt but not much attention was paid to it—indeed many of the inhabitants were not awakened. At Naples, 200 miles from the same point, the shock is described as slight, and it was also felt at Bari, distant 220 miles; but at greater distances it can hardly have attracted much notice. If we take 220 miles as the average radius of the disturbed region, the total area shaken, including that covered by the sea, would be about 150,000 square miles.

Extent of the earthquake.

The significance of such figures—4,500 square miles for the violently shaken area and 150,000 square miles for the disturbed area—will be evident when we compare them with the corresponding figures for other earthquakes. In the recent San Francisco earthquake the strongly shaken area contained about 40,000 and the disturbed area about one

and a half million square miles. In the Assam earthquake of 1897 serious damage to brick buildings occurred within a district including about 150,000 square miles, while the area shaken can hardly have fallen short of one and three-quarter million square miles, or nearly half the size of Europe.

Causes of destructiveness of the earthquake.

The destructiveness of the earthquake was due to several causes. The close neighborhood of the origin to a populous town like Messina was one of the most important, this being also the case in the recent earthquakes of San Francisco, Valparaiso, and Kingston. The occurrence of the shock at about 5.20 A. M., when most people were indoors and asleep, was a factor of no less consequence. But even those who were awake were practically unable to escape owing to the sudden onset of the shock. Though a tremor seems to have been recorded ten minutes earlier in the underground observatory of Messina, there was not even the indefinite warning occasionally given by perceptible fore-shocks. To those who were awake the first symptom was a deep rumbling noise like a peal of thunder or the explosion of many bombs. After a few seconds at the most, this was followed by a rough jolting movement, the shock increasing so rapidly in strength that few were able to quit their dwellings before the heavy stone floors and staircases, parting from the lofty outer walls themselves, which

encumbered the streets with *débris*. As to the exact nature of the shock within the ruined area, we can expect to know little from personal evidence; but, from the reports of several witnesses (including one on a steamer near Messina) there seem to have been two maxima of intensity, separated by a brief interval of lesser movement. The total duration of the shock is estimated by several observers at from thirty to thirty-two seconds—not a great duration for a destructive earthquake, but sufficient to lay in ruins every town and village within the central areas.

Duration of the shock.

The shock was felt severely on several vessels that were close to Messina at the time. Ships quivered suddenly as though they had lost their screws, or run aground, or struck a piece of wreckage. Thousands of fishes must have died. After the sea-wave, the tongue of land protecting the harbor of Messina from the sea was found to be covered by the bodies of dead fishes, killed no doubt by the shock to which their whole bodies were simultaneously exposed.

As in the Lisbon earthquake, and in so many of the earthquakes on the coast of Japan and South America, the damage wrought by the shock itself was aggravated by the rush of the great sea-wave soon after the shock was over. Along the east coast of Sicily, at Giardini (near Taormina), Riposto, and Catania, the sea suddenly receded for fifty yards or

Damage occasioned.

Along the coast.

more. It then returned, a great muddy wave, from ten to twelve feet in height, driving ships and boats from their moorings, sweeping over the low-lying coasts and leaving them strewn with wreckage. The effects of the wave at Messina were at first exaggerated, but it flooded the lower parts of the town, washed the ruined lighthouses and neighboring cottages into the sea, and damaged the fronts of the harbor-works.

Reggio flooded.

On the opposite coast of Calabria the sea-waves were higher and the results more serious. At Reggio the streets were flooded up to the first floor of some of the houses, and many ruined buildings along the coast (especially to the south of Reggio) were swept away. How far along the Calabrian coasts the sea-wave was noticed is still unknown. In Sicily it was observed along the north coast to Termini and along the east coast to Syracuse. It must, however, have spread far beyond these limits, for at Malta, about three hours after the earthquake, a wave swept into the harbor, disturbed the smaller boats, and, rushing over the shore embankments, washed into the low-lying houses. When the records of the tide-gauges in the more distant harbors of Italy, in France, Spain and elsewhere are examined, it will probably be found that the waves did not entirely vanish before reaching the farthest corners of the Mediterranean Sea.

The mere existence of the sea-waves points to a considerable displacement of the ocean-bed. At Messina parts of the harbor works have sunk to the level of the water. At Reggio the quarter by the sea has disappeared, and large tracts of land to the south of town are now lying under water. More trustworthy evidences of crustal movements on land are to be found in the twisted railway-lines and distorted surface features in the neighborhood of Reggio. The sea-waves.

That the Messina earthquake belongs to the class known as "world-shaking" is evident from the distance of the stations at which it was recorded by seismographs, the farthest at present reported being Perth in West Australia.

Soon after the earthquake was over, the usual train of after-shocks began, slighter far than the original shock, but strong enough to alarm the survivors and occasionally to bring down some of the shattered but still standing walls. No detailed record has or could have been kept of these shocks, but in the neighborhood of Messina they seem to have been less numerous than is generally the case. We hear of several shocks having been felt during one night, but not of that almost incessant quivering of the ground which follows a great earthquake in the central district. Around Reggio they were more frequent. A week after the earthquake they occurred at intervals of about After-shocks.

twenty minutes. One of the most interesting of the after-shocks was that felt in Stromboli (one of the Lipari Isles) on January 3. This lasted about half a minute, and was strong enough to damage many houses. This volcano, one of the few active vents in Europe, also sent out streams of lava, while prolonged subterranean explosions were heard. This is especially noteworthy, for at the time of the great earthquake Etna, Stromboli and Vulcano remained quiescent.

Heavy death-roll.

In the history, and especially the political history, of the earthquake, attention will be drawn more to Messina, with its heavy death-roll, than to the smaller towns of the opposite coast. But the intensity of the shock was greater at Reggio and the surrounding villages than in any part of Sicily. Not that the ruin of the Calabrian towns was more complete, for that could hardly have been the case, but the railway-lines were damaged more seriously and over a wider area, the distortion of the ground was more marked, the sea-waves were higher and the after-shocks more frequent. In all probability, the seismic focus extended beneath the whole width of the straits—the south-western end being situated close to Messina; another and more important part reaching to and beyond Reggio; while, in the intermediate region, there must also have been a very considerable displacement of the ocean-bed sufficient to

rupture the submarine cables and to generate the seismic sea-waves.

If the Messina earthquake were an isolated phenomenon—if it had occurred, like the Charleston earthquake of 1886, in a country where earthquakes are almost unknown—it would still be one of the highest interest to seismologists. But this interest is still further increased from its occurrence in a land of earthquakes, from its connection with the great convulsions which have made the names of Reggio, Palmi and Monteleone familiar in the annals of disaster. Of few seismic districts is the history so well known as that which embraces the south of Calabria and the north-east of Sicily. It has been investigated by many students, but especially by Dr. M. Baratta, the historian of Italian earthquakes. The tale of disaster begins with the earthquake of Catania in 1169, when 15,000 persons were killed. In 1509 Reggio was destroyed. In 1638 nearly 10,000 persons were killed in Nicastro and the surrounding villages. In 1693, 93,000 lives were lost during the earthquake which devastated the north and east of Sicily. Few earthquakes are so well known as the series which lasted from February, 1783, until October, 1786, during which more than 30,000 persons were killed. In the Nineteenth Century many strong shocks, though not of the first order of magnitude, occurred, culminating in that of the

Other Calabrian and Sicilian earthquakes.

16th of November, 1894, which resulted in the loss of ninety-six lives. In the present century, besides Messina, there have been the earthquake of the 8th of September, 1905, and also that of the 23d of October, 1907, which originated in an almost inactive centre to the south of Greece.

Earthquakes since 1900.

Professor Suess, the veteran author of *The Face of the Earth,* was one of the first geologists to recognize the intimate connection between earthquakes and the forces moulding the earth's crust, and southern Italy is perhaps the seismic region which he has studied in greatest detail. The masses of ancient rock composing Aspromonte, the hills of Vaticano, Scilla, and the Peloritan mountains near Messina, he points out, are fragments of a mountain range that was once continuous, but is now cut through by the Straits of Messina. In southern Calabria they are bounded on the western side by a great fault or fracture, along which were situated the centres of the earthquakes of 1783, and of many others before and since. This band of centres is part of a great curve, roughly circular in form, with its centre among the Lipari Isles and a radius of about sixty miles. Professor Suess has also indicated the existence of several rectilinear earthquake bands, radiating from the Lipari Isles, and crossing the circular band nearly at right angles.

Between the Lipari Isles and the mainland

and Sicily lies part of the Tyrrhenian Sea, the bed of which, according to Professor Suess, has sunk down in the form of a dish, bounded by the curvilinear fracture and producing by its subsidence the radial fractures which converge toward the still active volcanoes of the Lipari Isles. Further sinking of the basin, which tends to widen the Straits of Messina, gives rise to earthquakes in Calabria and Sicily, and to increased volcanic activity in the Lipari Isles.

The basin of the Tyrrhenian Sea the centre of earthquakes.

It is by no means necessary that the subsidence should take place throughout the whole fracture at once. It may, on some occasions, as in 1659 and 1894, be confined to small portions; or, as in 1783, it may affect different regions in succession, the foci migrating to and fro along the curved bands; or lastly, as in 1905 and 1908, it may occur over a great extent of the fracture and visit several or many portions simultaneously.

Professor Suess's theory is attractive in its simplicity and in its power of grouping together facts that are apparently isolated. It is possible that it may be expressed in too simple a form—that, with the advance of knowledge, it may require extension or modification. The course of the curvilinear fracture may have to be altered in detail; the fracture itself, instead of being single, may be rather a complex system of faults. But on two points in connection with the theory the

Professor Suess's theory.

recent earthquake affords some welcome evidence. One is the occurrence, six days after the principal earthquake, of the after-shock in Stromboli, with its attendant increase in volcanic activity. The other is that the chief seismic focus was situated in part beneath the Straits of Messina, thus forming a junction between the seismic zones of Calabria and Sicily. Though it may have served no other useful purpose, the Messina earthquake has, in this way, supplied a link that was missing in the chain of evidence, and at the same time removed a forcible objection to Professor Suess's theory.

After-shock in Stromboli.

THE EIGHTH SATELLITE OF JUPITER

(A.D. 1908)

PROF. TARRIDA DEL MARMOL

MR. GEORGE FORBES in a letter published by "Nature" about the discovery at Greenwich of the eighth satellite of Jupiter, conjectures that the object may be the long-lost Lexelles comet of 1770. The reasons he gives to support his assumption prove that such an hypothesis is perfectly reasonable.

Notwithstanding, I feel rather inclined to believe that the eighth satellite of Jupiter, as well as the sixth, the seventh, and several others which may some day be discovered by the photographic process, are not lost comets at all, but former asteroids which have been, or will be, captured by the giant planet.

Is the eighth satellite comet or asteroid?

The successive discoveries of Achilles, Patrocles, Hector, and C. S., whose distances from the sun are approximately the same (a little greater for two of them and a little smaller for the other two) as the distance of Jupiter from our central body, compel us to believe that there are, or have been, many asteroids in the neighborhood of the Jovian path.

Generally, those which occupy the position of inferior planets relatively to Jupiter will have a shorter period than the giant planet, and those which occupy the position of superior ones ought to have a longer period.

It is easy to show that in both cases the asteroids are free from being captured by Jupiter. But in the very particular cases when the asteroids are practically at the same distance from the sun as Jupiter, and are nevertheless inferior planets relatively to it, the capture appears unavoidable.

In the first case, the asteroid, being an inferior planet and its period shorter than that of Jupiter, when it approaches it its velocity increases, then its distance from the sun decreases, and consequently it goes farther away from Jupiter, to a sufficient distance to avoid its being captured. After it has overhauled the giant planet, the attraction of this will tend to decrease its velocity, then to increase its distance from the sun and consequently to oblige it to resume its former path, until after many revolutions round the sun, it approaches Jupiter again and performs the same process which we have just been describing.

How Jupiter captures asteroids.

In the second case, the asteroid being a superior planet with a longer period than Jupiter, when this last approaches such asteroid, the velocity of the latter diminishes, then its distance from the sun, and also from

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THE EARTHQUAKE AT MESSINA

SHOWING THE DESTRUCTION OF THE HOUSES ALONG THE WATER FRONT, INCLUDING THE AMERICAN CONSULATE

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Jupiter, increases, according to the law of areas, until Jupiter has overhauled the small planet, when the velocity of the latter will again increase, compelling it to resume its original path.

Attraction of Jupiter.

In fine, the same cause, that is, the attraction of Jupiter, which threatens the asteroid, is also the very cause which saves it from being captured, thanks to the permanent working of the law of areas.

But what will happen when the smaller planet will be the inferior one?

Such may be the case in several instances, because the mass *m* of the asteroid being practically *nil* comparatively to the mass M of the sun, its distance *d* to the centre of gravitation is really equal to its distance to the centre of the sun, while the centre of gravitation of the system, sun—Jupiter is somewhat distant from such centre, since the mass *m* of Jupiter is only about one thousandth of the mass of the sun. In this particular case, it may be shown that the asteroid will have, though being the inferior planet of the two, a period *t* longer than the period *t* of Jupiter, and will be consequently captured sometime by the latter, except, of course, in the very special circumstance, when the sun, the planet and the asteroid will always gravitate at the vertices of a triangle constantly equilateral, according to the celebrated theorem of Lagrange.

Using the above data, and d being the same for both planets, we may write:

$$\frac{d^3 : t^2}{M + m} = \frac{d^3 : t'^2}{M + m'}$$

or

$$\frac{M + m'}{M + m} = \frac{t^2}{t'^2}$$

and as

$$M + m > M + m',$$

we have

$$t'^2 > t^2$$

and again

$$t' > t: \textit{q. e. d.}$$

Thus, the asteroid having a longer period and being at the same time an inferior relatively to Jupiter, it will find, when approached by the latter, that its velocity decreases; then its distance from the sun increases, and, consequently its distance from Jupiter diminishes. In other words, while Jupiter is approaching it, and until it is overhauled by the giant planet, the asteroid, instead of getting safely away from it, as such was the case in the former instances, will get closer and closer to it, running the risk to reach a point where the Jovian action will have to overcome the Solar one. This, of course, may be avoided many and many times, according to the respective inclinations of both orbits. But when the positions of the planets will be such that their distances are small enough, the capture will be inevitable.

Asteroids approach closer and closer to Jupiter.

That may justify the assumption that the

asteroids, which were in this particular case just after the heavenly catastrophe which led to their formation, whatever this catastrophe may have been, either have been already, or will be some day, captured by the giant planet. Jupiter waiting to capture asteroids.

According to the respective positions of Jupiter and the captured asteroid in the critical moment of the capture, the movement of the new Jovian satellitoid will be either direct like the VI. and the VII., or retrograde, like the VIII.

I do not think it impossible, although this is a bold statement, that the direct satellitoids (Hyperion and Themis) of Saturn and the retrograde one (Phœbe) have the same origin.

It would be enough, for this, to assume that the world of the asteroids, which has only recently been found to extend beyond the orbit of Jupiter, is really extending far enough to encroach upon the regions of the ringed planet itself. Asteroids traveling toward Saturn.

[1909: Turkey cedes Herzegovina to Austria-Hungary. First Cuban Congress meets. Earthquake in Western Persia kills 500. White Star liner *Republic* rammed by Italian liner *Florida* off Nantucket (8 drowned). Railway wreck at Bielitz, Austrian Silesia (45 killed). Cyclone in Southern cities ($2,000,000 loss). U. S. battleship *Delaware*

launched. France and Germany sign Moroccan treaty. Centenary of Abraham Lincoln celebrated. Mt. Kantjana, Japan, falls, burying three villages. Conference of Maritime Powers, London, at which the much-discussed Declaration of London, February 26, 1909, with its modification of the law of contraband and rights of seizure and search was adopted by the delegates for submission to their respective Governments. Atlantic battleship fleet welcomed home in Hampton Roads from its world course. William H. Taft inaugurated President of the United States.]

William H. Taft inaugurated President of the United States.

THE VOYAGE OF THE AMERICAN FLEET*

(A.D. 1908-9)

FREDERICK PALMER

"A MISSION of peace and a course of drill," as Admiral Dewey has written, but "prepared for any duty and any eventuality," and better prepared than ever before—that is the situation in a word! "A mission of peace and a course of drill."

Sixteen battleships, forming a column more than three miles long, every one having from a hundred to a hundred and fifty more than its usual complement of men, with every magazine full, leave Hampton Roads for their 14,000 mile journey on December 16, . . . ready for battle in all except war paint. This is a matter of the few hours that it takes the brushes to turn the conspicuous white of peace into the color of the sea. . . . The preparation for the long voyage really began before the voyage was ever thought of. Our navy has increased rapidly. Within the last two years we have had to train the crews to man seven new battleships, and our officers have had to learn to drive them as part of a Seven new battleships.

*This account of the voyage of the American fleet is abridged from a series of articles by Mr. Palmer, who was on the *Connecticut*.

sixteen-horse team. Under Evans the fleet has become a working unit.

A message from above.

"Be prepared to go as far as San Francisco and return," was the message from higher places, "without having to enter a dock for repairs." . . .

On the flagship with him are the fleet navigator, the fleet ordnance officer, the fleet marine officer, the fleet surgeon, each responsible for his department. From his cabin the Admiral can now telephone as well as telegraph by wireless. . . . It is he who reports to the board of directors: to the United States of America. It is he who gets the blame for any damage to the whole or the honor for the safety of the whole—of property valued at more than a hundred million dollars, which could not be reproduced inside of three years. . . . There are two squadrons of eight ships each, Admiral Evans flying the flag of the first and Admiral Thomas of the second. There are four divisions, Admiral Evans flying the flag of the first, Admiral Emory the flag of the second, Admiral Thomas the flag of the third, and Admiral Sperry the flag of the fourth—in other words, an officer of flag rank for every division. . . . In each division are grouped the ships most like in tonnage and in type. Leading are the *Connecticut* (Evans's ship), the *Louisiana,* the *Kansas,* and the *Vermont,* the final word of our shipyards. In the

"Fighting Bob" in his glory.

fourth division, bringing up the rear, are the *Alabama,* the *Illinois,* and the double-turreted *Kearsarge* and *Kentucky,* the older types, which are yet very modern compared to the *Oregon* and the *Iowa.* . . .

A stately parade.

Sixteen battleships in stately procession moving out of the Roads formed a spectacular tableau. . . . But what does that navy at sea? There is the question.

When the Admiral lowered his hand from his cap after receiving the President's good-by, the voyage may be said to have actually begun. . . . With the flagship remained the three ships of our division. Following the other three flagships of the junior admirals were their divisions. By the left they wheeled forward until each of the three flagships was abreast of ours, and the whole formed a checkerboard of sixteen white spots on the blue—the steaming formation. We were off. . . .

In column we steamed through the roadstead of the Dragon's Mouth into the landlocked waters of Port of Spain. . . . From a column the formation had changed to a square, of which the *Connecticut* was one corner, with the sun between us and the rear line. . . . The colliers were waiting at anchor when we arrived. At break of day they were alongside. Four days to coal, four ships being coaled each day, was the program. . . .

Christmas and the races.

We came at Christmas time, and the Trinidad folk allow nothing to interfere with Christ-

mas and the races. . . . Coaling is over. The ships are spotless again. We are ready to start for Rio de Janeiro. . . . From Port of Spain (Trinidad) to Rio de Janeiro, from 10° north across the zero point and gathering latitude again to 23° south, is a distance of thirty-three
A long run. hundred miles or more. On the afternoon of December 29, after passing through the Dragon's Mouth out of the Gulf of Paria, we had our last glimpse of land until yesterday morning, when the navigator identified a dim outline on the western horizon as Cape Saint Roque, Brazil's extreme eastern headland.

After we had been at sea for two weeks, Lieutenant Gherardi was the first to put us in touch with the world. He commands the *Yankton,* the flagship's tender, which had preceded us from Trinidad. On Sunday morning we were skirting the coastal hills, which enclose the harbor of Rio, when an approaching white speck grew into the well-defined, rakish lines of a yacht, which, in this instance, is a converted one of Spanish war days.

The fleet slowed its engines until it had only headway. All eyes were on the small boat which the *Yankton* lowered, and from which Lieutenant Gherardi climbed up the high, white-armored sides of the *Connecticut.* After he had taken his despatches below to the Admiral, he told us that . . . the Brazilians were preparing to give us a great time, which was the first intimation we had of the wonderland

program of red, white, and blue ices, lunches on mountain tops, garden parties, smoking parties, and banquets and balls that was to follow. . . . We are to have a reception and to illuminate the fleet, to show this hospitable people that, busy as we are with the day's work, we are not unmindful or ungrateful. . . . Before he [President Penna of Brazil] appeared in the gentle old side-wheel yacht, which is a relic of the Empire, the Brazilian men-of-war, which were inshore from us, got under way. They had hit on a new plan of doing us honor. Slowly they steamed around their guests at anchor, while the side-wheel yacht—of the Victorian-Dom Pedro-Victor Emmanuel days—steamed up and down between the divisions of the fleet, and we burned black powder, and so did Fort Gravate. After the President had looked us over and called on the training ship and on Admiral Thomas, who made and received all official visits (owing to Admiral Evans's illness), the comfortable old yacht paddled its way over to Fort Villagenon. It was then after two, the hour set. The battleships, with the flood of the tide, had swung round with their bows facing seaward, which saved the screws a few minutes' work in demonstrating the length of each ship's turning radius.

A gentle side-wheel yacht.

That half-hour's delay sent us away from Rio in a storm, which is not long in the making in the tropics. . . . Our departure was

At Rio de Janeiro.

magnificent, but it was not nice for lawn dresses or Presidential parties or the pleasure craft, that listed from their cargoes of sight-seers like the excursion boats when Sir Thomas Lipton tries to lift the cup.

The first four of the fleet became last in the order of our departure. Admiral Sperry's division of the *Illinois* and the *Alabama,* and the double-turreted twins, the *Kentucky* and the *Kearsarge,* led the way, and the *Connecticut's* division drew up in the rear as unit by unit the leviathans steamed from their position into place in column. . . .

A voyage through four seasons.

Since our start we have literally passed through four seasons: winter off the Virginia Capes, spring as we approached the Caribbean, summer in the equatorial seas, autumn after leaving Rio. Our return to the latitudes where wheat is grown and bananas are an import we shall always associate with the gallant and spirited greeting which we received from the Argentine navy in midocean.

Encounter with the Argentine navy.

As for the Argentine navy, it set for itself a search-problem in courtesy. If it might not greet the mighty sixteen in home ports, it would greet them in home seas. On the 26th, Rear-Admiral Oliva and his four cruisers were looking for us, and we were expecting them. But the next morning at eight there was an impressive ceremony—a sea ceremony pure and simple—one unique in naval history. Past our fleet, which fell into single column

with the Argentine colors flying, steamed four cruisers at fourteen knots, eight hundred yards apart, their distances rigidly kept, their sailors and our sailors manning the rails, and the saluting guns burning the proper amount of black powder for the occasion. When their flagship was abeam of ours the four Argentines turned at right angles to our course, and we watched them on their homeward course to the westward until they were hulls down.

Without a word spoken from deck to deck, we had shaken hands and paid and returned official calls, and wished each other joy through the wireless. . . .

At Valparaiso, Chile.

Our stately call at Valparaiso fitted a diplomatic necessity perfectly. We had spent ten days at Rio de Janeiro; we had met the Argentine division at sea and sent our destroyer flotilla to Buenos Aires. We had coaled at Punta Arenas, on Chilean soil, in the Straits of Magellan. We were going for a ten days' stay at Callao, Peru. We gave Valparaiso a naval parade without interfering with our schedule. . . . That smart Chilean cruiser, the *Chacabuco,* which met us in the Straits, had been playing the escort first on one quarter and then the other. Two days out of Valparaiso she was joined by three torpedo-boat destroyers, in order to do us more honor and make quite sure that we did not miss being in front of Point Angeles at 2 P. M. on February 14.

A Chilean training ship.

Her yards manned, a naval training ship was the most conspicuous feature of the scene. As each ship of the column came abreast of her it was twenty-one guns again, and this time to the head of the Chilean nation, President Montt. We had a glimpse on the pilot-house of this man in the high hat and frock coat of republican official preeminence of the Western Hemisphere. So long is our column that the *Connecticut* was well out at sea and back to the business of our practise cruise before the *Kentucky* had ceased firing. . . .

We were a great show for Rio, and an epoch for Lima. The Peruvians did as much for us as the Brazilians did, and gave us a bull-fight, besides. Out of the smother of functions this remains the most vivid. . . . Of course President Pardo was present; he came with his impressive body-guard of lancers. . . .

Home once more.

This was home. By home I do not mean the town or street in which you live. I mean the whole United States. . . . For once the flagship entered a harbor without attracting a regatta by water and a crowd by land. Strictly, in her private capacity, she brought Rear-Admiral Evans to San Diego, which is in the very southwestern corner of the family domain, on his way to the cure at Paso Robles.

THE COMING OF PRESIDENT TAFT

(A.D. 1909)

SYDNEY BROOKS

A stormy inauguration day.

MARCH 4th in Washington was a day of snow and sleet and slush and harsh tempestuous winds. It completely ruined what is never, perhaps, a very imposing or a very well-managed ceremony, the inauguration of a new American President. Yet from one standpoint there was a certain humorous propriety in the fury of the elements. If it was anything but a harmonious prelude to the reign of tranquillity which Mr. Taft was expected to usher in, it was a not incongruous finale to a Presidency which even its friends admitted to have been belligerent, and which its enemies described as not less than convulsive. That Mr. Roosevelt's term of office should end in a blizzard seemed more natural than that Mr. Taft's should begin in one. From the latter America looked, first of all, for peace. I do not mean external peace—that was taken as a matter of course—but internal peace—peace between the White House and Congress, and between the President and the world of business and finance. After the excursions and alarms of

the Roosevelt *régime* the people were prepared to listen to the calmer voice of reasoned persuasion. Mr. Roosevelt's sledge-hammer methods were doubtless suited to the conditions in which he found himself. The moral sense of America when he entered the White House was all but asleep, and organized wealth ruled the country. It is a fair contention that no agency less powerful than his stentorian voice and the proddings of his "big stick" could have awakened the one or dethroned the other. His policies, moderate in themselves, seemed revolutionary only because of the heat and combativeness with which he advocated them. Much of that heat was certainly temperamental; but much also was due to a conviction that a milder and less sensational propaganda was doomed to failure. The movement Mr. Roosevelt initiated was primarily a moral and not a social, political, or economic movement; and evangelists, as we know, are often obliged, like other folk, to beat a drum before they can collect an audience. To bring home to the minds and hearts and consciences of his fellow-countrymen the necessity of honesty in public and private life; of justice between class and class; of humanizing the relations between employer and employed; of asserting the supremacy of national over private interests, of enforcing obedience to the law upon rich and poor alike, and of rescuing the natural wealth and resources of

Mr. Roosevelt's vehemence.

the country from improvident exploitation—this was the great task to which Mr. Roosevelt addressed himself. It was not a task that could be accomplished by gentle ratiocination. It required for its successful performance a certain force and extravagance of language which Mr. Roosevelt, for his part, was only too ready to supply. Nor was it a task that could be carried through without a considerable disturbance of settled habits and encrusted standards. The President, no doubt, made that disturbance greater than it might have been by his slashing harangues and the vehemence of his attack. But that an upheaval of some sort there had to be if the millionaire and the boss were not to rule America indefinitely seems to me incontestable. Now that the turmoil has subsided, pretty nearly all Americans appear to agree that Mr. Roosevelt's policies were fundamentally right; that he taught both the people and the plutocracy a much-needed lesson, and that he rendered American civilization a great and enduring service, first in convincing the heads of the big corporations that they had more to gain by keeping within the law than by breaking it, by taking the public into their confidence than by conducting all their operations behind a veil of secrecy, and by abandoning illegal and dishonorable practices than by persevering in them; and, secondly, in creating a public opinion at once more sensitive

Roosevelt's policies fundamentally right.

to social and economic shortcomings and injustices, and more swift to condemn political and business methods that a decade ago were all but universally condoned.

Mr. Roosevelt's spectacular tactics.

There was a feeling, however, strongest, of course, in Wall Street, but discernible also, among the mass of people, that Mr. Roosevelt's too aggressive and spectacular tactics had served their turn and that it was for Mr. Taft to continue the work of readjustment and reform with the minimum of disturbance to political and economic stability. The American people had no wish to see Mr. Roosevelt's policies either reversed or abandoned, but they hoped it might be possible to prosecute them with less violence and with greater regard for the nerves of the commercial world. They expected Mr. Taft to follow in his predecessor's footsteps, but more warily and with a less reverberant tread; to develop his policies, but less volcanically, with fewer outbursts, in a better temper, and with more dignity. The task was one eminently congenial both to the new President's views and to his personality, and the hope of America was that the moral upheaval which Mr. Roosevelt brought about with so much turmoil and friction might, under the mellower direction of his successor, bear fruit in legislation that would be passed and accepted unanimously. Everything seemed to favor Mr. Taft when he stepped into the White House. Both Houses of Con-

gress were in the control of his party; there was a universal disposition to accept his advent to office as the beginning of an era of confidence and good feeling; and he found ready to hand the atmosphere and the state of mind most propitious for the kind of constructive work in which he excels. He has, moreover, a reflective, probing, disentangling mind; he is strong, cautious, and serene; his mountainous geniality makes innumerable friends and no enemies; he is almost startlingly unprovocative; his gift of lubricating sagacity is precisely the gift most likely to ensure harmony between the White House and Congress; and he is thoroughly experienced in the work of administration. All this and the further fact that he himself subscribed to and had taken a large part in formulating the Roosevelt policies, pointed to his Presidency as a time of quiet, progressive and valuable achievement. Anyone, indeed, knowing the speaker and his circumstances could have foretold the tone and substance of his Inaugural Address. It outlined a practical and unalarming program in sober and unrestrained language. Mr. Taft began by endorsing the Roosevelt policies and hinted at the measures which next month he will definitely ask Congress to pass for the purpose of clinching them. His stand on the Army and Navy in no way differed from his predecessor's. In what he said about reforming the

Mr. Taft's policies.

currency and banking laws, about the Panama Canal, about ship subsidies, and about the use of injunctions in labor disputes, there was little or nothing that Mr. Roosevelt had not said before him. The main purpose of the Address was to reiterate the necessity of an immediate and effective revision of the Tariff, a problem which Mr. Roosevelt, with more prudence than statesmanship, had consistently passed by. It contained, however, three suggestions that were really noticeable.

Three notable suggestions.

The first favored a graduated inheritance tax. The second called for legislation that would enable the Federal Executive to enforce the Treaty rights of alien residents and immigrants. At present, as San Francisco has abundantly proved, these rights are at the mercy of any State, or city, that chooses to disregard them; and, short of civil war, there is no way in which the United States Government can impose upon any of the States in the Union a respect for Treaty obligations. In all matters relating to engagements with Foreign Powers the scheme of the American polity makes the authority of the whole subordinate to the authority of the parts; and Mr. Taft's proposal to reverse a state of affairs so humiliating to the national credit, though one of obvious justice and enlightenment, is also one that carries with it considerable Constitutional implications. The third suggestion in his address, which went rather beyond the

normal round of Mr. Roosevelt's recommendations, bore on the vexed problem of negro office-holders.

Mr. Taft is a lawyer who has developed almost by accident a great capacity for administration. President Roosevelt was an administrator by every instinct of his being, and only stopped to think of the law when he was forced to. Mr. Taft's first and most natural impulse is to ask of any given policy: Is it Constitutional? President Roosevelt's was to ask as few questions as possible, to proceed at once to action, and to expect the Constitution to stand out of his way. Nobody knowing the temperament of the two men could doubt that Mr. Taft in the White House would strictly observe all the proprieties and formalities and restrictions that his predecessor appeared to disregard at most times, and did actually disregard at some.

[Fire in Canton, China (1,000 killed). Blizzard in Europe kills 200. Siam cedes three states to the British Empire. The United States Government breaks off diplomatic relations with Nicaragua. Petrosino, Italian detective, murdered by Black Handers in Palermo. General postal and telegraph strike in Paris. Shackleton's Antarctic expedition returns to New Zealand. Roosevelt sails from New York for Italy. Crown Prince of Servia renounces his right of succession to the throne

Ex-President Roosevelt sails for Italy.

and Servia accepts settlement with Austria-Hungary. Queensborough Bridge over the East River, New York, opened. Fort Worth, Texas, partly burned ($5,000,000 loss). Military mutiny in Constantinople. Ministry under Tewfik Pasha formed. Massacre of Armenians in Asiatic Turkey (15,000 massacred). Beatification of Joan of Arc in Rome. Constitutional army captures Constantinople. Sultan Abdul Hamid II. of Turkey deposed and Prince Mehemed Roschid Effendi becomes Sultan Mehemed V. Birth of Crown Princess of Holland. Russians relieve Tabriz. Shah restores Persian Constitution. Hundredth anniversary of St. Patrick's Cathedral, New York. Daring train robbery near Colbert, Wash. Philippine Legislature demands independence of the islands. French postal strike ends. Tornadoes in Texas and Oklahoma. Zeppelin flies dirigible balloon *Zeppelin II.* from Friedrichshafen to Bitterfeld (456 miles) and comes to grief on return flight. Alaska-Yukon Pacific Exposition opened in Seattle. Korinchi, Sumatra, destroyed by earthquake (250 killed). Bloody revolt in Northern Albania. Russian submarine sinks in the Black Sea. Earthquake in Southern France (100 killed). Female suffragists attempt to force entrance into House of Commons (115 arrests made). Constitutionalists take Teheran. Earthquake in Southern Greece (20 killed). English sub-

Alaska-Yukon Exposition opened.

marine torpedo boat sinks off Lowestoft. Muhammed Ali, Shah of Persia, dethroned and succeeded by Crown Prince Ahmed Mirza. United States Circuit Court decrees the dissolution of the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey. Extensive strike of railway employees in the Northwest.]

Ahmed Mirza becomes Shah of Persia.

THE DETHRONEMENT OF THE SHAH

(A.D. 1909)

EDWARD G. BROWNE

Triumph of the Nationalists.

ON THURSDAY, July 15, the Nationalists captured the South Gate (that of Shah Abdul-Azim) and two large guns; the Cossack Brigade still held out in the central square; and desultory firing continued all day. The Sardar-i-As'ad, interviewed by Reuter's correspondent at the Baharistan, which was still the target of the Shah's artillery, appeared cheerful and confident, and expressed the hope that the Russian troops would not interfere to prevent the Nationalists from completing their victory. No definite arrangement for the surrender of the Brigade had been arrived at. The "Times" correspondent in the morning visited the Sardar-i-As'ad and the Sipahdar in the Baharistan, and made them a handsome apology for the contemptuous manner in which he had hitherto spoken of them and their followers. They "accepted his excuses most gracefully," and assured him on their honor that neither they nor any of the Bakhtiyaris had designs on the throne. His estimate of the total casualties on both sides was under a hundred, and

Victory and surrender.

he added that the only European hurt was a Hungarian, who was hit by a spent bullet. Concerning the negotiations which still continued between Colonel Liakhoff and the Nationalist leaders, the fullest account is given by Reuter's correspondent. The terms suggested by the Colonel had been accepted by the Sipahdar, but the former, while agreeing that his Cossacks should not fire except upon disbanded soldiers engaged in looting, provided that the Nationalists did not fire upon his men, intimated that the decision as to surrender did not depend on himself alone. In the afternoon he again wrote to the Sipahdar, complaining that the Cossack quarters were still under fire from the Nationalists. To this the Sipahdar replied that, notwithstanding yesterday's agreement, his men had been fired at by the Cossacks, and that consequently they had retaliated in kind, but that he was still prepared to observe the agreement if the other side would also observe it.

Negotiations with Nationalist leaders.

The end came on Friday, July 16, when at 8.30 A. M., Muhammed Ali Shah, with some 500 of his soldiers and attendants, including the notorious reactionary Amir Bahadur Jang, took refuge in the Russian Legation at Zarganda, and thus *ipso facto* abdicated his throne, though he was not formally deposed until late that night. He had already decided on this step, in case he should be worsted in the struggle, on the day when the Nationalists

entered Tihran, and had obtained the necessary promise of hospitality from the Russian Legation. On his arrival he was installed in the Minister's house, over which the Russian and British flags were placed, and which was guarded by Russian Cossacks and Indian Suwars. Shortly afterwards a meeting between Colonel Liakhoff and the Nationalist leaders was arranged by the Dragomans of the two Legations. The terms already agreed upon were accepted, the Shah's abdication having left Colonel Liakhoff free to act as he thought best. In the afternoon, accompanied by an escort of his Cossacks, he met the Sardar-i-As'ad, also accompanied by an escort of his men, at the Imperial Bank of Persia, whence he was escorted by the Nationalists to the Baharistan. There the two *quondam* enemies were received with acclamation, and the Colonel formally accepted service under the new Government, and agreed to act in future under the direct orders of the Sipahdar, who had been chosen Minister of War. It was decided that the Cossacks of the Brigade should not be disbanded, and should receive back their arms after they had laid them down in token of submission, and that they should be immediately employed in policing the town (to which, naturally, most of the Nationalist warriors were strangers), and in checking looting and disorder. This step was applauded as wise and conciliatory, and the

The Shah abdicates.

"Daily Telegraph" correspondent declared that "the behavior of the Revolutionaries was absolutely correct," that "they were perfectly capable of maintaining order," and that "all were full of praise for their wisdom in preventing complications." At 5 P. M. fighting had ceased, save for desultory firing by a few of the Shah's Bakhtiyaris who occupied positions near the British Legation.

Late in the evening an extraordinary meeting of the National Council, consisting of the Nationalist leaders, the chief *mujtahids* and notables and as many Members of the former Majlis as were available, met at the Baharistan, and formally deposed Muhammad Ali, choosing as his successor to the throne his little son Sultan Ahmed Mirza, the Crown Prince, a boy only twelve or thirteen years of age, under the regency of the aged and trusted 'Azudu'l-Mulk, the head of the Qájár family.

The Crown Prince.

Thus ended a Revolution comparable in many respects to that which had taken place a year before in the sister state of Turkey. Both these Revolutions happened in the month of July by our reckoning, and by the reckoning of the Muslims in the latter days of the month of the second Jumádá (A. H. 1326 and 1327 respectively), which is followed by the month of Rajab, thus giving a strange and new force to the well-known tradition: "Wonder and again wonder between Jumádá and Rajab."

In the blood of her children Persia paid the lesser price, for according to the most careful estimate which I have seen "the killed and wounded (*i. e.* during the five days' fighting at Tihran in July, 1909) probably numbered about 500," though "the exact facts will never be known, as many of the dead were thrown into the nearest pit or eaten by dogs." Yet in Persia both the issues at stake and the difficulties to be overcome were greater, for not only the cause of Freedom and Reform but the independence of the country hung in the balance, while the ever-present fear of foreign intervention, greatest on the very eve of victory, might well have paralyzed statesmen and soldiers more experienced than those to whose hands were entrusted the fortunes of the Persian Constitution.

Proposals and settlements.

The National Council, or Emergency Committee, having decided to depose Muhammad Ali, and place on the throne his little son Ahmed, telegraphed to the British and Russian representatives to request that a deputation might be permitted to wait on the ex-Shah and inform him of their decision. To this proposal, however, he declined to assent: they had overcome him, and he would have to abandon not only his throne but his country. He would get the best terms he could from them, but otherwise he had no desire to have more to do with them than he could help. It was at first reported that his *quondam* tutor

and evil genius, Shapshál, the Russian Karaim Jew, had placed at his disposal a castle in the Crimea, that the new Government had offered him a pension of £5,000 a year, and that he would start on August 2; but various difficulties arose, there were differences as to the Crown jewels, the pension was deemed inadequate, the ex-Shah had contracted many debts and mortgages on his estates; and, in short, the delays seemed interminable and the obstacles insuperable ere a final settlement was reached on September 7. On August 4 the Government had already trebled their original offer, and were prepared to pay the ex-Shah a pension of £15,000 a year on condition of his handing over to them the jewels specified in an inventory which they had prepared, and stating what he had done with any which should be missing. But there arose fresh difficulties concerning his enormous private debts, amounting to some £400,000, three quarters of which had been borrowed by him from the Russian Bank before he came to the throne, and the remaining quarter from other sources, foreign and Persian, since his accession. Much of this money had been raised by mortgages to the Russian Bank on his private estates in Azarbayjan, and the new Government, being anxious to prevent these estates from falling into the hands of Russian agents, proposed to take over the ex-Shah's liabilities and increase his yearly pension to

The Shah's private debt.

£18,000 on condition that he should cede to them the control of these estates and liquidate all arrears of payment. The ex-Shah still continued to raise difficulties about his estates, and about the Crown jewels, both of which he was most unwilling to surrender, and he even telegraphed personally to the Czar to demand protection of his rights. It appeared, however, from the reports of the British and Russian Consuls-General at Tabriz, that the estates were in reality worth far less than the ex-Shah and the Russian Bank asserted, and thereupon "the Russian Government immediately waived its objection to pressure being put on Muhammad Ali in regard to the financial settlement," and he was informed "that the proposed arrangement" fixing his pension at 100,000 *tumans* (£16,666) a year "was entirely to his advantage." And so at last the protocol embodying these terms was signed on September 7, and two days later Muhammad Ali, accompanied by his wife, his four younger children, and a certain number of his adherents and retainers, left the shelter of the Russian Legation at Zarganda and started on his journey to Russia. "Weak and foolish as many of his recent actions have been," says the "Times" correspondent, "he did not forget his dignity, and in his farewell with Sir George Barclay, whom he believes to be the principal instrument of his downfall, he gravely thanked the British representative

Financial settlements.

for the trouble he had taken on his behalf." His journey to the Caspian was very leisurely, but at last, about the first of October, he left the Persian shore, it may be hoped for ever. A special train consisting of nine carriages conveyed the ex-Shah, his harem of ten women and his companions and attendants, numbering some forty persons, from Baku, where he was met by a Russian Court Chamberlain to Odessa, where a fine house, luxuriously fitted, was provided for his residence. There he still resides, interesting himself in the life, industries, and amusements of that busy sea-port; and it may be hoped that the clause in the protocol rendering him liable to deprivation of his pension in case it shall, at any time, be proved to the satisfaction of the British and Russian representatives in Persia that he is intriguing against the new Government of his country, may prevent him from ever again becoming a danger to the land which he did so much to ruin.

The Shah goes to Odessa.

The new boy-King Ahmed Shah, accompanied by his Russian tutor, M. Smirnoff, and escorted by Russian and Persian Cossacks and Indian Suwárs, proceeded on July 18 from Zarganda to Saltanatabad and was there acclaimed by the Regent, the aged 'Azudu'l-Mulk and representatives of the National Council. The poor child wept bitterly at having to leave his father and mother, and the parting, graphically described by the "Times"

The boy-King.

correspondent in his telegrams of that evening, seems to have been an affecting one; but he met the Deputation bravely, and in reply to the hope expressed by them that he would be a good King, he replied, "Please God, I will." On July 20, he entered Tihran, where he was enthusiastically received, and the city was illuminated that night in his honor, while telegrams of congratulation were received from the Turkish Parliament and from the Persian colony at Calcutta. Next day he held his first durbár, or reception, at the Palace of Shamsu'l-Imara, and a day or two later the new *régime* was formally recognized by England and Russia. Throughout the provinces, and especially at Tabriz, the news was received with enthusiasm, and on August 1 the Diplomatic Corps were presented to the little Shah, who seems to have borne himself with that dignity which Persian boys of noble family are so well able to assume, though once or twice his heart appears to have failed him, and it was reported that he had tried to escape from his palace, and had on one occasion even threatened to commit suicide.

The new Shah holds his first durbár.

LIQUID AIR

(A.D. 1909)

ARCHIBALD WILLIAMS

AMONG common phenomena few are more interesting than the changes undergone by the substance called water. Its usual form is a liquid. Under the influence of frost it becomes hard as iron, brittle as glass. At the touch of fire it passes into unsubstantial vapor.

Transformation of water.

This transformation illustrates the great principle that the form of every substance in the universe is a question of heat. A metal transported from the earth to the sun would first melt and then vaporise; while what we here know only as vapors would in the moon turn into liquids.

Every substance in the universe a question of heat.

We notice that, as regards bulk, the most striking change is from liquid to gaseous form. In steam the atoms and molecules of water are endowed with enormous repulsive vigor. Each atom suddenly shows a huge distaste for the company of its neighbors, drives them off, and endeavors to occupy the largest possible amount of private space.

Now, though we are accustomed to see water-atoms thus stirred into an activity which

gives us the giant steam as servant, it has probably fallen to the lot of but few of us to encounter certain gaseous substances so utterly deprived of their self-assertiveness as to collapse into a liquid mass, in which shape they are quite strangers to us. What gaseous body do we know better than the air we breathe? and what should we less expect to be reducible to the consistency of water? Yet science has lately brought prominently into notice that strange child of pressure and cold, Liquid Air; of which great things are prophesied and about which many strange facts may be told.

Mysterious liquid air.

Very likely our readers have sometimes noticed a porter uncoupling the air-tube between two railway carriages. He first turns off the tap in each end of the tube, and then by a twist disconnects a joint in the centre. At the moment of disconnection what appears to be a small cloud of steam issues from the joint. This is, however, the result of cold, not heat, the tube being full of highly-compressed air, which by its sudden expansion develops cold sufficient to freeze any particles of moisture in the surrounding air.

Compressed air.

Keep this in mind, and also what happens when you inflate your cycle-tyre. The air-pump grows hotter and hotter as inflation proceeds; until at last, if of metal, it becomes uncomfortably warm. The heat is caused by the forcing together of air-molecules, and in-

asmuch as all force produces heat, your strength is transformed into warmth.

In these two operations, compression and expansion, we have the key to the creation of liquid air—the great power, as some say, of to-morrow.

Combativeness of the air atoms.

Suppose we take a volume of air and squeeze it into 1-100 of its original space. The combativeness of the air-atoms is immensely increased. They pound each other frantically, and become very hot in the process. Now, by cooling the vessel in which they are, we rob them of their energy. They become quiet, but they are much closer than before. Then imagine that all of a sudden we let them loose again. The life is gone out of them, their heat has departed, and on separating they shiver grievously. In other words, the heat contained by the 1-100 volume is suddenly compelled to "spread itself thin" over the whole volume: result—intense cold. And if this air be brought to bear upon a second vessel filled likewise with compressed air, the cold will be even more intense, until at last the air-atoms lose all their strength and collapse into a liquid. Liquid air is no new thing. Who first made it is uncertain. The credit has been claimed for several people, among them Olzewski, a Pole, and Pictet, a Swiss. As a mere laboratory experiment the manufacture of liquid air in small quantities has been known for twenty years or more. The

Who first made liquid air?

earlier process was one of terrific compression alone, actually forcing the air molecules by sheer strength into such close contact that their antagonism to one another was temporarily overcome. So expensive was the process that the first ounce of liquid air is estimated to have cost over £600!

In order to make liquid air an article of commerce, the most important condition was a wholesale decrease in cost of production. In 1857 C. W. Siemens took out a patent for making the liquid on what is known as the regenerative principle, whereby the compressed air is chilled by expanding a part of it. Professor Dewar—a scientist well-known for his researches in the field of liquid gases—had in 1892 produced liquid air by a modification of the principle at comparatively small cost; and other inventors have since then still further reduced the expense, until at the present day there appears to be a prospect of liquid air becoming cheap enough to prove a dangerous rival to steam and electricity.

Professor Dewar.

A company known as the Liquid Air, Power and Automobile Company has established large plants in America and England for the manufacture of the liquid on a commercial scale. The writer paid a visit to their *dépôt* in Gillingham Street, London, where he was shown the process by Mr. Hans Knudsen, the inventor of much of the machinery there used. The reader will doubtless like to

learn the "plain, unvarnished truth" about the creation of this peculiar liquid, and to hear of the freaks in which it indulges—if indeed those may be called freaks which are but obedience to the unchanging laws of Nature.

How liquid air is made.

On entering the factory the first thing that strikes the eye and ear is the monstrous fifty horse-power gas-engine, pounding away with an energy that shakes the whole building. From its ponderous flywheels great leather belts pass to the compressors, three in number, by which the air, drawn from outside the building through special purifiers, is subjected to an increasing pressure. Three dials on the wall show exactly what is going on inside the compressors. The first stands at 90 pounds to the square inch, the second at 500, and the third at 2,200, or rather less than a ton pressure on the area of a penny! The piston of the low-pressure compressor is ten inches in diameter, but that of the high pressure only two inches, or 1-25 of the area, so great is the resistance to be overcome in the last stage of compression.

Now, if the cycle-pump heats our hands, it will be easily understood that the temperature of the compressors is very high. They are water-jacketed like the cylinders of a gas engine, so that a circulating stream of cold water may absorb some of the heat. The compressed air is passed through spiral tubes winding through large tanks of water, which

fairly boils from the fierceness of the heat of compression.

When the air has been sufficiently cooled it is allowed to pass into a small chamber, expanding as it goes, and from the small into a larger chamber, where the cold of expansion becomes so acute that the air molecules collapse into liquid, which collects in a special receptacle. Arrangements are made whereby any vapor rising from the liquid passes through a space outside the expansion-chambers, so that it helps to cool the incoming air and is not wasted.

The liquid-air tank is inside a great wooden case, carefully protected from the heat of the atmosphere by non-conducting substances. A tap being turned, a rush of vapor shoots out, soon followed by a clear, bluish liquid, which is the air we breathe in a fresh guise.

A quantity of it is collected in a saucepan. It simmers at first, and presently boils like water on a fire. The air-heat is *by comparison* so great that the liquid cannot resist it, and strives to regain its former condition.

Peculiarities of liquid air.

You may dip your finger into the saucepan —if you withdraw it again quickly—without hurt. The cushion of air that your finger takes in with it protects you against harm—for a moment. But if you held it in the liquid for a couple of seconds you would be minus a digit. Pour a little over your coat sleeve. It flows harmlessly to the ground, where it

suddenly expands into a cloud of chilly vapor. Put some in a test tube and cork it up. The cork soon flies out with a report—the pressure of the boiling air drives it. Now watch the boiling process. The nitrogen being more volatile—as it boils at a lower temperature than oxygen—passes off first, leaving the pure, blue oxygen. The temperature of this liquid is over 312 degrees below zero (as far below the temperature of the air we breathe as the temperature of molten lead is above it!). A tumbler of liquid oxygen dipped into water is soon covered with a coating of ice, which can be detached from the tumbler and itself used as a cup to hold the liquid. If a bit of steel wire be now twisted round a lighted match and the whole dipped into the cup, the steel flares fiercely and fuses into small pellets; which means that an operation requiring 3,000 degrees Fahrenheit has been accomplished in a liquid 300 degrees below zero!

Curious effects.

Liquid air has curious effects upon certain substances. It makes iron so brittle that a ladle immersed for a few moments may be crushed in the hands; but, curiously enough, it has a toughening effect on copper and brass. Meat, eggs, fruit, and all bodies containing water become hard as steel and as breakable as glass. Mercury is by it congealed to the consistency of iron; even alcohol, that can brave the utmost Arctic cold, succumbs to it. The writer was present when some ther-

mometers, manufactured by Messrs. Negretti and Zambra, were tested with liquid air. The spirit in the tubes rapidly descended to 250 degrees below zero, then sank slowly, and at about 260 degrees froze and burst the bulb. The measuring of such extreme temperatures is a very difficult matter in consequence of the inability of spirit to withstand them, and special apparatus, registering cold by the shrinkage of metal, must be used for testing some liquid gases, notably liquid hydrogen, which is so much colder than liquid air that it actually freezes it into a solid ice form.

For handling and transporting liquid gases glass receptacles, with a double skin from which all air has been exhausted, are employed. The surrounding vacuum is so perfect an insulator that a "Dewar bulb" full of liquid air scarcely cools the hand though the intervening space is less than an inch. The fact is hard to square with the assertion of scientific men that our atmosphere extends but a hundred or two miles from the earth's surface, and that the recesses of space are a vacuum. If it were so, how would heat reach us from the sun, ninety-two millions of miles away?

The "Dewar bulb."

Uses for liquid air.

One use at least for liquid air is obvious. As a refrigerating agent it is unequalled. Bulk for bulk its effect is of course far greater than that of ice; and it has this advantage over other freezing compounds, that whereas

slow freezing has a destructive effect upon the tissues of meat and fruit, the instantaneous action of liquid air has no bad results when the thing frozen is thawed out again.

Liquid air is already used in medical and surgical science. In surgery it is substituted for anæsthetics, deadening any part of the body on which an operation has to be performed. In fever hospitals, too, its cooling influence will be welcomed; and liquid oxygen takes the place of compressed oxygen for reviving the flickering flame of life. It will also prove invaluable for divers and submarine boats

[Hudson and Manhattan railroad tunnels under the Hudson River, New York, opened. Paulhan breaks aeroplane record at Doue, France. General strike in Barcelona as a protest against the Spanish-Moroccan War. Evacuation of Crete by the Powers. Storms in Texas. Anti-Diaz riots at Guadalajara, Mexico. Orville Wright established a new aeroplane record for duration of flight (20 minutes, 45 seconds). Blériot in monoplane (first heavier-than-air machine) flew across the Channel (28 miles). Bubonic plague and cholera in Amoy, China. Train wreck at Longjumeau, France (128 killed). Osaka, Japan, partly destroyed by fire. Earthquake in Japan. Walter Wellman sails in his dirigible balloon from Spitzbergen for the

Earthquake in Japan.

North Pole and comes to grief. Cunard liner Mauretania, coming west, breaks record (4 days, 14 hours, 38 minutes). Disastrous fire in Glasgow. Asiatic cholera breaks out in Rotterdam. 6,000 Pittsburgh miners strike against use of new explosives. President Taft begins his 13,000 mile tour. Orville Wright makes a record for high flight in Berlin.

Chili celebrates centenary of its independence.

Chili celebrates centenary of its independence. Hurricane in Gulf States. Floods in Valley of Santa Catarina destroy 2,000 lives and $30,000,000 of property. Earthquake in Siena, Italy. Aviation tournament at Rheims, first ever held: Paulhan breaks record for sustained flight (2 hours, 53 minutes and 24 seconds; distance record, 83 miles); Latham breaks aeroplane record for time and distance (44 miles in 1 hour, 1 minute, 51½ seconds); Henry Farman wins Grand Aviation Prix, breaking record distance for flight, 111.78 miles in 3 hours, 56 minutes, 2-5 second; and Glenn H. Curtiss wins International Aviation Cup, for fastest flight on record (12.42 miles in 15.50 3-5). Orville Wright broke world's aeroplane record for two men for time and distance (50 miles in 1 hour and 40 seconds). Alfonso proclaimed martial law in Spain. Great flood in Chang-Chun, Manchuria, drowned 1,000 persons. Dr. Frederick A. Cook announced discovery of the North Pole on April 21, 1909, and received an ovation in Copenhagen. Robert E. Peary announced

discovery of North Pole by wireless from Labrador. Dr. Cook arrived in New York and received an ovation. Hudson-Fulton Celebration in New York. Peary arrived in New York and participated in the great naval parade.]

Hudson-Fulton Celebration in New York.

PEARY'S DISCOVERY OF THE NORTH POLE

(A.D. 1909)

J. HAMPTON MOORE

THE American people gloried in Peary's return; they awaited his coming and the recital of his story; neither they nor the great newspaper craft had patience to await the unwinding of the red tape associated with a governmental report; they wanted news, and they wanted Peary's news. Unhappily for Peary he kept his faith, and those in the newspaper world with whom he kept his faith exercised the right of legal protection, leaving open to the great mass of newspapers of the country such information, such stories, as might come, and readily did come, from another source. A world's event was being recorded, and the difficulties of a majority of the newspapers in obtaining Peary's news gave color and support to another fertile but irresponsible medium which spouted arctic yarns with wondrous volubility.

Peary's arrival eagerly awaited.

First of all, I present a summary of Peary's northern voyages, every one of which, it will be recalled, was watched with interest and with pride by the American people. These voyages began when Peary was a young man

Peary's voyages.

in the navy, and were pursued with a persistency and determination in every way creditable to the American spirit.

1886. May to November; about seven months; penetrated 100 miles on the inland ice of Greenland east of Disco Bay, about 70° N. latitude; altitude, 7,500 feet.

1891-1892. June, 1891, to September, 1892; about sixteen months; right leg broken on voyage north. Five-hundred-mile march out and same distance back, across northern part of Greenland, discovering Independence Bay on the north-eastern coast.

1893-1895. July, 1893, to September, 1895; about twenty-seven months; entire party except Peary and two men returned at end of first year. Spring of 1895 Peary repeated the march across northern end of Greenland and gained some miles beyond his farthest of 1892. Discovered the great Cape York meteorites and brought the two smaller ones back with him.

1896. July-October; about three months; unsuccessful attempt to bring home largest of the Cape York meteorites.

1897. July-October; about three months. Brought home largest of the Cape York meteorites—the Ahnigito, the largest in the world—weighing about 90 tons.

The largest meteorite in the world.

1898-1902. July, 1898—October, 1902; about four years, three and a half months. During this time made four separate attempts

to get north, resulting in the rounding of the northern end of Greenland and the attainment of the latitude of 84.17° north of the northern point of Grant Land. All the instruments, records, private papers of the Lady Franklin expedition at Fort Conger brought home.

1905-1906. July, 1905—November, 1906; about seventeen months; highest north, 87° 6′, attained in this journey.

1908-1909. July, 1908—September, 1909; about fifteen months. Attainment of the Pole.

Summary

Eight voyages, six attempts to reach the Pole and some twelve years spent inside the Arctic Circle.

	Degrees North Latitude
1886	69.00
1892	81.35
1895	81.40
1899	81.50
1900	83.59
1902	84.17
1906	87.60
1909	90.00

Peary's ability.

Peary's ability as a commander is thoroughly demonstrated by the success of his various expeditions. Twice his ship was driven through the ice to the highest point ever reached in the Western Hemisphere and to a point higher than any ship has ever at-

tained under her own steam. Many other ships attempted the same voyage, four of them accomplished part of it and two were lost. As to his work being civil and distinct from naval, it may be observed that Peary's bringing of the *Roosevelt* home in the fall of 1906, fighting her way through the heavy arctic ice, from Cape Union to Littleton Island, and thence down along the savage Baffin Land and Labrador coasts, encountering storm after storm, with rudder and sternposts torn away, propellers crippled and pumps going constantly, has been characterized as one of the ablest, most resourceful, and courageous affairs of its kind in the annals of arctic exploration. Indeed, it was the wonder of everyone who saw the ship when it was taken out on the dry dock.

Peary's resourcefulness.

But as to the expedition that was successful, the expedition of 1908-1909, resulting in the discovery of the Pole: In the light of the records, divested of all the bitterness and contention and misrepresentation that have been aroused with regard to Peary, it would seem that officially there could be no possible foundation for a refusal to acknowledge the work of this American discoverer. He fitted out this last great expedition at his own expense and that of his friends, and was then granted leave of absence by the Navy Department, taking with him instructions which gave him an unqualified official connection with

the Government, and which would seem to leave no excuse for further denying him recognition.

S. S. Roosevelt, 8—17, 1908.

Etah, North Greenland, Lat. 78° 18′ N.

SIR: I beg to report my arrival here August 11. Leaving Sydney July 17, Cape York Bay was reached near midnight of July 31.

Peary's report.

The voyage north across the Gulf of St. Lawrence was favorable, the Straits of Belle Isle were free of fog, rendering the passage easy, and favoring weather was experienced along the Labrador coast, which was followed as far as Turnavik Island, latitude 55° 18′ N., with two intermediate stops for whale meat.

From Turnavik a course was set for Greenland coast, and about twelve hours of heavy weather ensued. After that the weather was moderate again until midnight of Saturday, the 25th. Following this were three days of strong northerly wind and sea, accompanied by rain and fog, which rendered the negotiation of Davis Strait somewhat disagreeable and arduous. From Holsteinberg the weather was favorable again, an energetic southerly wind of some hours' duration off Turnavik materially assisting us on our way.

Duck Islands were passed just before midnight of July 30, and Melville Bay entered in brilliant sunlit weather, with light air from the north.

This weather held to the east side of Cape York Bay, which was reached 11.30 P.M., July 31, no ice having been seen on the passage across the bay. In fact, no ice has been seen in the entire voyage except a narrow string of light scattered ice off the Labrador coast, the evening of the 23d.

Heavy weather and an unusual swell held us here till early Sunday morning, when the ship crossed to Cape York, latitude 75° 55′ N. Here I learned that the *Erik* had passed the day before, but was unable to get into the settlement. Eskimos and dogs were taken on here and the ship's tanks filled with water from the glacier. We then steamed north to North Star Bay, where I found the *Erik*. Arrival of the *Erik*.

Taking on more Eskimos and dogs here, the ships steamed in company to the northwest end of Northumberland Island, where I boarded the *Erik* to visit the settlements at the head of Inglefield Gulf, while the *Roosevelt* proceeded direct to Etah to overhaul and trim ship for the ice.

I rejoined the *Roosevelt* with the *Erik* late August 11, with additional Eskimos and dogs and some 35 walrus. All dogs were landed on an island in Etah Fiord, the *Roosevelt* was coaled from the *Erik,* coal landed for the return trip, and two men landed with supplies for the relief of Doctor Cook.

The season has been an unusually cold and

stormy one, with almost continuous wind and frequent snow.

I have on board a good supply of Eskimos, dogs, and walrus meat. All on board are well. I expect to steam north some time to-night.

Very respectfully,
R. E. PEARY, U. S. Navy.

Superintendent U. S. Coast and
Geodetic Survey.

Peary notifies the Government.

After the first flush of excitement, after the rumbling which precedes the coming of the herd, the expansion of the wave that tells of the ship's approach, or, to be blunt and understandable, after the modern demand for news had "beaten" official sanction, Peary proceeded, when facilities (the wireless telegraph) were at hand, to promptly notify the Government. His telegrams to the President, to the Secretary of the Navy, to the Secretary of State, and their replies thereto, clearly indicate the cordial and congratulatory spirit that prevailed. There was no suggestion in the proud messages that flashed back across the seas to the frozen north that there had been any violation of instructions, any breach of official faith, or any regret that an awaiting world had been informed of the glorious triumph of American pluck. In the interest of truth and justice it is fair to recall these messages.

THE SLEDGE THAT TRAVELLED TO THE NORTH POLE

From a photograph taken at Battle Harbor, Labrador

—Vol. IX, pages 2859-2872

Indian Harbor, Sept. 7, 1909.

WILLIAM H. TAFT,

President of the United States of America,

White House, Washington, D. C.

Have honor place North Pole your disposal.

R. E. PEARY,
United States Navy.

EXECUTIVE OFFICE,
Beverly, Mass., Sept. 8, 1909.

Commander R. E. PEARY,

U. S. Navy, North Sydney, Nova Scotia.

Thanks for your interesting and generous offer. I do not know exactly what I could do with it. I congratulate you sincerely on having achieved after the greatest effort the object of your trip, and I sincerely hope that your observations will contribute substantially to scientific knowledge. You have added lustre to the name "American."

WILLIAM H. TAFT.

Battle Harbor, Sept. 10, 1909.

Honorable SECRETARY OF STATE,

State Department, Washington, D. C.

Respectfully report hoisted Stars and Stripes on North Pole, April 6, and formally took possession that entire region and adjacent for and in name of President and the United States America. Record and United States flag left in possession.

Stars and Stripes at the Pole.

PEARY.

The Cook hoax.

Just before the news came from Peary, Dr. Frederick A. Cook, returning from Greenland on a Danish ship, claimed that he had reached the North Pole on April 21, 1908. His claims forestalling Peary were at first recognized and he was accorded an ovation in Copenhagen. Scientific opinion in England and America was more reserved; and after a lengthy and heated dispute a special committee of the University of Copenhagen, to which Cook's documents were submitted, declared that they contained no proofs that Doctor Cook had ever reached the Pole. By this time popular opinion had also reached the same conclusion and Peary came into his own.

"It was by the University of Copenhagen that Doctor Cook himself elected to be judged; the verdict of that court of decision, thus selected by himself, must be accepted by the world as final. . . . The fundamental justification of the distrust which has been felt all along in this country by many scientific observers and students of the laws of evidence has been that, to put it squarely, Doctor Cook has not acted as would have acted a man of honor whose claims had been disputed, and who knew that they were just. Such a man would have turned every effort and applied every minute to the task of getting his case clearly and strongly before a body of experts whose decision would be accepted the world

over. Doctor Cook, on the contrary, has carried on a long series of evasions and delays, and has apparently put his main efforts into making money by lectures and through publication. In this way he gained, some say, thirty thousand dollars, some say one hundred thousand dollars. Finally, when patience was all but exhausted, he presented to a foreign court of inquiry a lame and even ridiculous case. The mere fact that he did not offer to appear in person before the court he had himself selected, in order that he might answer inquiries, is most significant.

Foreign court of inquiry.

"It is safe to say that this fraudulent attempt to foist upon the world a tale of Arctic accomplishment will go down in history as one of those strange impostures like that of Ireland, the forger of a play attributed to Shakespeare, of George Psalmanazer (who falsely pretended to be a native of Formosa and wrote an elaborate description of that island, which he had never visited), or of the Count de Rougemont, who a few years ago fooled scientific England with his vividly invented lies about the great Barrier Reef of Australia. But these men's falsehoods injured no one personally; Cook's fabrication, if such it be, was an attempt to rob of his just meed of honor a man who had devoted a large part of his life to the great adventure of Polar discovery." *

*Outlook, January, 1910.

Thus ended the famous search for the North Pole which has been pursued for four centuries—ever since John Davis rounded Cape Farewell in 1588 and gained for Great Britain the record of "farthest north." Peary became interested in the quest as early as 1886, during a brief trip to Greenland. His first expedition to Greenland occurred in 1891 and his first North Polar Expedition in 1898-1902. His 396 miles from Greeley's "farthest north" were: 30 miles in 1900; 23 miles in 1902; 169 miles in 1906; and 174 miles in 1909. In his *North Pole* (New York, 1910), Peary gives us an insight into the enthusiasm that made such a feat possible:

"Farthest north."

"The lure of the North! It is a strange and powerful thing. More than once I have come back from the great frozen spaces, battered and worn and baffled, sometimes maimed, telling myself that I had made my last journey thither, eager for the society of my kind, the comforts of civilization and the peace and serenity of home. But somehow it was never many months before the old restless feeling came over me. Civilization began to lose its zest for me. I began to long for the great white desolation, the battles with the ice and the gales, the long, long arctic night, the long, long arctic day, the handful of odd but faithful Eskimos, who had been my friends for years, the silence and the vastness of the great, white lonely North. And back I went accord-

ingly, time after time, until, at last, my dream of years came true."

In introducing this same book Col. Roosevelt called attention to a few important following facts in regard to this triumph:

"Possibly few outsiders realize the well-nigh incredible toil and hardship entailed in such an achievement as Peary's; and fewer still understand how many years of careful training and preparation there must be before the feat can even be attempted with any chance of success. A 'dash for the pole' can be successful only if there have been many preliminary years of painstaking, patient toil, great physical hardihood and endurance, an iron will, and unflinching courage, the power of command, the thirst for adventure, and a keen and far-sighted intelligence—all these must go to the make up of the successful arctic explorer; and these, and more than these, have gone to the make up of the chief of successful arctic explorers, of the man who succeeded where hitherto even the best and the bravest had failed." Peary's hardships.

[Beginning of centenary celebration in St. Louis. Mix wins balloon race from Zurich, Switzerland, for James Gordon Bennett cup. Race of ten balloons from St. Louis, No. 3 lands in Minnesota (580 miles). Wilbur Wright makes a new aeroplane speed record (46 miles an hour). Cyclone in Philippines.

Revolution in Nicaragua. Newly instituted provisional assemblies of China open. President Taft and President Diaz exchange visits across boundary of Mexico and Texas. American Radium Institute tentatively organized in New York. Prince Ito assassinated by a Korean in Harbin, Manchuria. World's aeroplane speed record broken by Leon de la Grange in a Blériot machine, at Doncaster, England, 860 yards (54 miles an hour). Wilbur Wright flies 30 miles up the Hudson and back to Governor's Island. President Taft returns from long journey to Washington. Tunnel of Trans-Andean Railway from Chili to Bolivia pierced (highest in the world). Death of King Leopold of Belgium. Copenhagen University repudiates Cook's alleged discovery of the North Pole. Nicaragua Congress elects Dr. Jose Madriz President of the Republic. Battle in Nicaragua (600 killed and wounded). Albert I. crowned King of Belgium. Doctor Cook expelled from Explorers' Club. Henry Farman wins Michelin French aviation cup. Opening of Manhattan Bridge over the Hudson River. 1910: Legislative Council for India assembles for the first time. The Seine overflows in Paris. Chinese troops enter Lhassa and chase the Dalai Lama across the Indian frontier.]

Death of King Leopold of Belgium.

THE SEINE IN FLOOD

(A.D. 1910)

H. WARNER ALLEN

AT TEN minutes to eleven on the morning of Friday, January 21, 1910, almost the very hour at which on another January 21 Louis XVI. mounted the scaffold, the power station from which all the public clocks of Paris are worked by compressed air was flooded by the Seine; all the clocks stopped simultaneously with military exactitude, and with a start of surprise Parisians began to realize that the Seine in flood was not a harmless spectacle that could be watched with the cheerful calm of philosophic detachment, and that the river in revolt was an enemy to be feared even by the most civilized city in Europe. Crowds, it is true, had gathered on the embankments, admiring the headlong rush of the silent yellow river that carried with it logs and barrels, broken furniture, the carcases of animals, and perhaps sometimes a corpse, all racing madly to the sea; they had watched cranes, great piles of stones, and the roofs of sheds emerge for a time from the flooded wharves and then vanish in the swirl of the rising water, while barges and pontoons, gen-

Flood not feared at first.

erally hidden from sight far below, rose gradually above the level of the streets, notably one great two-storied bathing barge, a vision of unsuspected hideousness, that threatened at any moment, triply moored as it was, to crash into the parapet. But it was in the order of things that wharves should be flooded; it was sad that the little suburban towns by the river should be swamped, but these incidents could be regarded with altruistic sympathy. The stopping of clocks, however, and the irritating obsession of *onze heures moins dix* which confronted the Parisian from every street and *café* clock was something new and alarming; with its suggestion that time had stopped dead at the most ill-chosen of moments, this petty but perpetually repeated annoyance was the symbol of all the manifold inconveniences wrought by the flood, the failure of electric light, the disorganization of trams and 'buses, the bursting of drains and the swamping of houses, and perhaps none of them was more demoralizing.

"Onze heures moins dix."

By the time that Paris woke up to the fact that it was war with water, the most evasive and insidious of enemies, the Seine had made the low-lying suburbs its own. From visits to out-lying districts I retain a vague impression of thick black slime, abject shivering misery and great lakes of yellow water, with here and there the upper story of a house rising like an island from the desolate waste.

War with water.

From the Ile de la Grande Jatte, where the little restaurants were six feet deep in water, I watched a rescue party row back with difficulty across the river. They had saved a few pathetic sticks of furniture and a great mattress which, as its owner with exultation pointed out to the sympathetic crowd, was perfectly dry. A covered cart was in waiting, but the inside was already full and the mattress was hoisted on to the roof. Alas! for the vanity of human exultation! Hardly had it been tied in place when a storm of torrential rain swept down and drenched the mattress and its poor despairing owner as thoroughly as though they had fallen in the Seine. All the time the Seine was rising remorselessly, and those whose houses were threatened gathered along the banks in the rain, watching the river with the silence of utter dejection, though some of the braver spirits were building walls of masonry across their thresholds—walls over which a few hours later the river had risen.

At Bercy, within the fortifications, the quay was under water. The scene was indescribably desolate; a long row of cheerless houses three feet deep in water, as far as the eye could see; a double row of lighted gas-lamps burning pale and absurd in the gray daylight, because the flood had made it impossible to extinguish them; a punt conveying a workman to his flooded home, poled slowly along by two

The desolation.

policemen and bumping monotonously against the poplars and sunken railings; two soldiers on a flimsy raft that the most destitute of mariners would have scorned, steering an erratic course, as one of them paddled desperately with a tin pan; and only one bright touch. From the sixth story of one of the beleaguered houses a scarlet duster shaken by same careful housewife waved defiance to the river.

The Seine works havoc.

A day or two later the Seine was working havoc in the very heart of the city. On the left bank the defences were weakend by the low-level railway lines running from the great Orleans terminus of the Quai d'Orsay to the Austerlitz Station and from the Esplanade des Invalides to the Auteuil viaduct. The whole length of these lines was flooded twenty feet deep. The Seine actually flowed through the Orsay terminus as the water poured on to the line higher up the river and then fell back into the Seine through the ventilation shafts of the station, which looked for all the world like a swimming bath. Only the iron gallery, on a level with the entrance from the road, was left unsubmerged; the central depth had been converted into a huge tank of muddy water, while the sightseer looked vainly for the engines and carriages that lay drowned beneath. The unfinished works of the Metropolitan railway, running from north to south, had been converted into a subterranean river

at right angles to the Seine two miles long, and were flooding squares and streets a mile away near the Saint Lazare Station. On the right bank the river was threatened to overflow the embankments, and the problem of defence became a difficult one; for the damage done by the inundation of the Saint Germain quarter by the water from the Orsay Station, and of many streets in the central districts by percolation, would have been nothing to the havoc that would have been wrought by the direct sweep of the Seine over the embankments on the right bank. One of the difficulties of the situation was the Pont de l'Alma, which, with its low arches, was almost submerged, and held back in the centre of Paris great masses of water that threatened to sweep over the quays. The Pont de l'Alma.

Up the Seine on the right bank men were working for dear life by the light of naphtha flares to raise the earthworks along the parapet of the embankment. The Quai de la Conférence and the fashionable avenue of Cours-la-Reine were deep in water, but a thin line of sandbags backed here and there by wooden screens still kept back the surface flood. As the river rose, and it rose eventually over five feet above the level of the embankment, the military engineers raised the height of the barrier, which was half a mile long. That night the water was steadily creeping higher and higher, while a civil engineer, mud-be- The Seine rises.

spattered, with the red ribbon of the Legion of Honor in his button-hole, was standing on the corner of the sandbag bastion by the Pont de la Concorde and measuring its advance. He turned to a stranger beside him and said: "The river is still rising as fast as ever. If the barrier goes, five feet of water will sweep across the Place de la Concorde, the Boulevards—over everywhere," he added with an expressive gesture, "until it meets the flood that the Metropolitan is pouring out round the Saint Lazare Station." Then abruptly he turned to a non-commissioned officer awaiting orders behind him: "Give me another tier of sandbags." Orders were hoarsely shouted, and a crowd of little black figures, each shouldering a sandbag, swarmed like ants along the narrow earthwork, on the one side a few inches above the river, on the other a foot or so above the flood that lay deep on the embankment and on the avenue of Cours-la-Reine.

Fighting the river.

Weary as they were, after three days' unceasing toil, each man swung his sandbag into its place with a will and burst into a soldiers' chorus that sounded strangely merry amid the desolation around.

That night the Quai du Louvre was barred off by the police, and a silent crowd gathered at the barrier, though nothing could be seen, anxious for the safety of the collections that are the pride of France. In the mist the Seine

seemed as broad as the Rhine at Cologne, and the eye of fancy could descry Notre Dame between two raging floods, splendid and fearless in the majesty of its builders' faith. At this point the river flows beneath the Pont des Arts, and as its water poured through the iron supports of the bridge it made the little rippling noise of a hundred small cascades, a sound like malicious laughter even more terrible than its silence.

The Seine laughs maliciously.

The roadway along the southern façade of the Louvre was all uneven with the pressure of the overflowing drains beneath it, as though an earthquake had passed, and it sagged down suddenly just beneath the balcony of the splendid Jean-Goujon door. Here out of sight of the anxious crowd there was a scene of feverish activity. Men were tearing up cobbles from the road and building a rough wall across a gap in the parapet, where a flight of steps goes down to the river. There was need of haste; for the water that looked black and stagnant in the glare of the naphtha flares was creeping up apace and licking the lowest tier of cobbles. Others were recklessly digging great holes in the footpath between the poplars, and ramming the earth into bags, or nailing together great pieces of driftwood, fished from the river, to form a screen behind the sandbags on the parapet and hold them against the pressure of the current, while carts kept rumbling in and unloading

piles of stone and rubble against the wall and screen. I glanced over the screen that reached my chin, expecting to see the river five feet or so below me, and drew back with a start of alarm when I saw the gleam of water above the stone parapet and realized that it was only held back by the flimsy barrier. A few hours later and the river would have won; all the basements of the Louvre would have been flooded, and the water would have carried ruin across the Rue de Rivoli and Palais Royal.

Comic scenes.

It was no wonder that a sense of impending disaster hung over Paris; yet there was much in the situation that was simply comic. The special envoys of the King of the Belgians, invited to a lunch at the Foreign Office, were carried there in a large, flat-bottomed boat poled by a couple of watermen. Naval boats of the collapsible Berthon pattern were to be seen on waggons in the Avenue de l'Opéra, while bare-footed sailors splashed contentedly in the lake opposite the Saint Lazare Station. At times the incongruity of these things was scarcely realized.

Bridge after bridge was closed to the public as great masses of driftwood that could not be dislodged formed against them, until at one moment traffic was forbidden over all the nine bridges that lie between the Pont Neuf and the Pont de Grenelle. Cabs, carts, and every kind of vehicle concentrated in the

unflooded streets, were blocked into a solid mass that surpassed the wildest nightmares of congested traffic. Part of the Place de l'Opéra began to collapse, and a cab might take two hours to get from the Opéra to the Madeleine, five minutes' walk. An unreasoning panic seized the cabmen and chauffeurs; they were possessed with the fixed idea that no bridge across the Seine was safe, and no bribe would persuade them to cross the river; while they refused to take fares for even the shortest distance. Men left their homes dry-shod in the morning, and returning from business had to wade up to their knees through unlighted streets or creep perilously along a narrow plank gangway, only to find that it stopped short just where the water was deepest. One evening I was walking down a street which a few hours before had been thick with traffic. A single cart passed down beside me, and at once, without the slightest warning, the road began to undulate; and the next minute I was in water up to the knees, and one wheel of the cart had sunk through the wood pavement up to the axle. Once wet I plodded on through the water and in the darkness blundered against a plank which formed part of a trestle bridge some five feet from the ground; then climbing up, found myself at a perilous elevation on two exceedingly narrow planks.

Dangerous streets.

After cautiously venturing forward some

little way, a woman's shriek sounded so close to me that I almost lost my balance. Then in the obscurity a long row of black figures was discernible all on the bridge and coming in the opposite direction to myself. I succeeded in helping the young woman who had shrieked to pass me; then an elderly business man slipped between the two planks at my feet, and was hauled up with difficulty; then finally there was a crack, a plank broke and some unfortunate person fell flat on his face in two feet of filthy water. At last, somehow or other, I reached higher ground, and found a pathetic group of men and women, lighted by a policeman's lantern, waiting to take their turn on the remains of the gangway. They were returning to their homes in the street which had been flooded since they went out.

Perilous conditions.

On Saturday, January 29, Paris awoke to a bright sunny morning and the end of its nightmare. Early in the morning crowds gathered along the embankment, no longer murmuring in melancholy chorus, *"Ça monte, ça monte";* but laughing and chattering as they watched with uproarious satisfaction the broadening of the thin dark line which showed that the Seine was no longer rising or stationary, but slowly falling.

Sunshine restored, even in the flooded quarters, the true Parisian gaiety that had for a time been overclouded with a terrible sense of powerlessness and insecurity. The flooded

streets were bright and gay in the sunlight, as boats plied to and fro carrying men and women to their work. Every one was good-humored, and even a portly business man swarming down a rope from a first-story window into a police boat, while his wife and children watched his gymnastic prowess with undisguised horror, was laughing heartily, and fully conscious of the humor of the situation. Throughout the day crowds flocked to all the quarters that the river had attacked. To make the scene more gay, soldiers were everywhere, standing on guard at dangerous points or gathered round fires of wood paving blocks and drinking coffee and hot wine. Every one had an air of triumph; for the Seine had at last confessed itself defeated, and it only remained for Paris to show once again its superiority to disaster. In almost every street between Montmartre and the river pumps were hard at work: encouragement came from the news that the Seine was falling to resume what had been before the hopeless task of emptying cellars and basements; there were pumps of every kind, large and small, hand-pumps, smart electric pumps, steam pumps, and monstrous indescribable pieces of machinery that took up half the roadway, obscured the sunshine with clouds of filthy smoke and looked as if they had been rescued from the scrap-heap. Half Paris was in the streets gaping at the excavations, where the

The Seine falls.

Scenes of confusion.

water had entangled planks and masonry, pipes and cables in inextricable confusion and examining the barricades with eager interest while their elders compared them with the barricades of the Commune.

THE FLIGHT OF THE DALAI LAMA

(A.D. 1910)

SVEN HEDIN

THE funeral ceremonies, and all the intricate interests and intrigues which in China accompany a change of rulers, monopolized the attention of all. No one had time to think of the fugitive Pope of Tibet. In short, he was considered harmless and allowed to go home.

The Dalai Lama goes home.

He left Peking on December 31, 1908, and the journey to Lhassa took more than a year. He arrived there on December 25, 1909. I have no information about the route he took or about the details of his journey. It may be said with certainty that he crossed the Kumbum at Sining-fu, where he probably stopped a long time. Even in Nakchu he is said to have stopped two months. My friend Gulam Razul Khan Bahadur in Leh, who carries on a privileged trade with Lhassa, told me lately in a letter that Tashi Lama travelled several days' journey from Lhassa to meet his spiritual brother—probably to Nakchu.

The news of the flight of the Dalai Lama came like a bombshell. Lords Curzon, Lansdowne, and Rosebery asked questions that

were answered by Lord Morley. Lord Lansdowne's supposition that the Dalai Lama was "forcibly expelled" can hardly be right, for probably the Chinese wished rather to get him into their power. One is told that a Chinese army marched in from Batang and Chiamdo, punishing the obstreperous monks in Kham, and that an advance guard of forty horsemen reached Lhassa on February 12, which caused the Dalai Lama to flee head over heels the same night to the south. Lord Minto also telegraphed news from a reliable Tibetan source that the Amban had promised the Dalai Lama that only 1,000 Chinese soldiers should march to Lhassa, and when larger forces were on their way he had fled, against the advice of the Council and the National Assembly.

Flight of the Dalai Lama.

Chinese troops followed close on the heels of the fugitive Pope. They caught him up at the Chaksam Ferry, and a fight ensued that cost some Chinese lives. During the tumult the Dalai Lama himself escaped, and continued his way by Gyangtse to Chumbi, which he reached on the 20th. All the way the Chinese were on his heels, but he succeeded at the last moment in crossing the Indian frontier in safety. About March 1st Darjeeling was astonished by the visit of the Grand Pope. On English territory he was received with all the respect and regard due to a spiritual head whose power is so immense and

widespread. He was invited to Calcutta, a palace was put at his disposal, he exchanged visits with the Viceroy, and when the hot weather set in in the delta of the Hugli he returned to Darjeeling.

I have been told by a very eminent Buddhist priest that, according to historical tradition, the Chinese emperor has no right to depose a Dalai Lama and choose a new one. But he can draw lots between a number of "Khutuktus," each of whom possesses the necessary qualifications to be Dalai Lama. And in this special case, says my Buddhist priest, historical tradition goes by the board; here it is force and political relations that settle everything. Still he thinks it necessary that the Chinese Government should make a good and wise selection, for otherwise the Lamaists of Tibet and Mongolia will not believe that the new man is a living Buddha. Finally, this priest believes that the Dalai Lama is lost if he returns to Tibet; but if he remains under English protection in India he is as safe as all other political fugitives who in the course of years have found shelter on English territory.

A Buddhist priest's opinion.

It is also from an Asiatic source that I have heard, but only as a supposition, that the Dalai Lama would have preferred to flee to Russian territory. Possibly the Indian Government knows what truth there is in that. One may think the Russo-Japanese war destroyed his faith in Russia. But had he journeyed

north he would certainly have been made a prisoner, for he would have had to cross immense stretches of Chinese territory to reach the Russian frontier. Whatever danger threatened him he had to choose the shortest route out of his country; and it is undeniably a picturesque and extraordinary situation that no one ran greater risk of his life within the borders of Tibet than the Dalai Lama, the Pope of Lhassa, the high priest to whose supernatural holiness all Mongolia had just been grovelling in the dust. In any case, it was with the greatest difficulty that he escaped from his pursuers and reached the territory of his enemies. And he came as a beggar who asked for shelter, he who had not even condescended to answer autograph letters of the Viceroy.

The Pope of Lhassa.

With the extremely scanty and imperfect news that reaches us from the great East it is not easy to understand clearly the course of events, but even here is an open field for various surmises. Why does the Chinese Government wish the return of the Dalai Lama to Lhassa? Because it is taken for granted that he will be done away with by his Tibetan rivals there. What advantage does China reap from this? This, that a new Dalai Lama, a child in years, perfectly innocuous, will occupy the papal seat at Lhassa. The Chinese thus get free hands and can introduce a new order of things in Tibet.

Advantage to the Chinese.

So far as I can see the position is this: China is wise to try to get the Dalai Lama to come back to Tibet; England would be wise to keep him; the Dalai Lama would be wise to remain for ever at Darjeeling. He cannot leave Sikkim without the permission of England. As long as he is on British territory China has no power over him. He is not free to act according to his will; he is a political prisoner. Thus all depends on England, and the decision rests with Lord Morley. And one may be sure that Lord Morley will take no steps but such as redound to the benefit of the British Empire in India.

About all this he has only a faint idea—the "Holy King," Gyalwa Rinpoche, the once powerful incarnation of Chenresi, the Grand Pope Ngavang Lobsang Trebden Gyatso Dalai Lama. He does not know how much trouble he has caused; he knows that innocent blood has flowed for his sake, but not that piles of notes, mountain high, have been exchanged between London and Calcutta, between England, Russia, and China, and that the telegraph wires have had no peace because of him. But he has plenty of time to walk about in the dark temple halls of Darjeeling and ponder on the vanity of all human ways and the perishableness of all earthly splendor. And he walks there as a living proof of the danger to the head of a Church, whose sway extends over so large a percentage

The Dalai Lama in exile.

of humanity, in setting his desire on earthly and temporal power. To us, who know a little of the Tibetans and the limited horizon of the monks in the cloisters, it is clear that he is not consumed by any pangs of conscience. He takes his position quite calmly, and thinks himself all the time master of Tibet. He wraps himself in his red cloak as before and sits joyfully over his steaming tea-cup and observes the swimming bubbles of butter, as mutable and inconstant as the fates and fears of human beings. He is worshipped by his *entourage* and respected by his hosts, and he is glad to know that his life is safe within the cloistered walls of Darjeeling.

His romantic career.

What a wonderful career! He enters into negotiations with Russia and forces England into war. He hurries as a fugitive through Tibet and Mongolia, received everywhere like a king. He escapes from great difficulties, is venerated in Peking and returns to Lhassa when the storm is over and past. Then he forces China into war. Finally, he hurries away destitute of everything as a begging friar to seek help in India. He is not content with windmills, this Asiatic Don Quixote; no, it must be the Great Powers that are to do all he wants.

What a fine romance Dumas would have been able to write about this Dalai Lama, of the processions and hurried journeys, a romance as thrilling, though of a different

kind, as "The Count of Monte Cristo." He is a new edition of Clement V., Darjeeling is his Avignon; he lives there in the Babylonian exile of the Lamaistic Popes. And yet he enjoys the only freedom that a man of his position and condition in life can expect, namely, a freedom inside strongly guarded cloister walls. Still, in his own eyes, he is ever Chenresi, the divine incarnation of long life, and he continues to pray as before at the altar of his god.

Chenresi.

Now summer has come back to the slopes of the Himalaya. Warm winds blow through the trees. The Dalai Lama goes out on the balcony of the cloister. He listens to the blowing of the wind which comes from the north and brings greeting from the land of the dreams of his childhood. He sees the mighty mountain range with its mantle of eternal snow. Behind it is Tibet, and he longs for home. He shades his eyes with his hands; never did the mountains appear so lofty and grand as they do now. It is as if no human sorrows could exist among them. Then he lets the pearls of his rosary glide between his fingers and mutters regretfully: *"Om mane padme hum!"*

A barrier of eternal snow.

[Egyptian Prime Minister shot by a student. Ex-President Roosevelt declines to accept conditions for presentation to the Pope. British House of Commons agrees to the Gov-

ernment's resolution limiting the Veto power of the House of Lords. Death of Mark Twain. Brussels Exposition opened. Senate passes bill for raising the old battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor. Death of King Edward and accession of George V. to the British throne. A. H. Forbes in a balloon photographs Halley's comet, attaining a record height of 20,600 feet. *Florida,* the largest Dreadnought in the U. S. Navy, launched. Experiments on the French liner, *La Provence,* show success of a wireless device for locating ships in a fog. Halley's comet approaches nearest the earth on May 18.]

Death of King Edward VII.

KING EDWARD VII

(A.D. 1910)

ARTHUR C. BENSON

THERE was something deeply and even tragically impressive in the solemn simplicity of the words in which the momentous news of the demise of the Crown was announced to a group of anxious spectators at the midnight hour—"Gentlemen, the King is dead." The awful mysteries of life and death, the tremendous significance of the event itself, the human perplexity and grief in the presence of the great change, are all comprised in those brief words. When a personality so vigorous, so kindly, so notable, quits the mortal scene, leaving so grievous a gap in a circle of devoted intimates, the bare fact is saddening enough; but this sorrow and this perplexity are increased a thousandfold, when the Figure that steps so swiftly and so tranquilly into the unknown is the head of a great nation and a mighty empire, one who was endeared to his subjects by his unfailing kindliness and justice, who had won their admiration no less than their regard by the patience, the sagacity, and the wisdom with which he had played his august part.

"Gentlemen, the King is dead!"

It is as easy to describe as it is impossible to estimate the secret of King Edward's personal influence. It came from a frank and manifest love of life, not enjoyed in selfish isolation, but with an open-handed generosity, and a desire to share with others and to communicate to them his own enjoyment, his delight in existence, with all its interests, pleasures, and duties. May I be pardoned for relating a simple personal reminiscence? I came away from an interview with the King at Buckingham Palace, in which he had spoken to me very warmly and graciously of the Letters of Queen Victoria. When I came out, an Equerry, with whom I was acquainted, was waiting for me. "Well," he said, "how did you fare?" I said the only words which came into my mind: "The King was very kind." "He always is," said the Equerry, with a smile.

The King's characteristics.

That was the simple secret—an invariable and genuine kindness, which streamed from the King like light from the sun. But besides that, there was an added grace in the extraordinary personal charm of the King's look and voice and manner. He set one at one's ease, instantly and immediately, with a perfect simplicity of address. He seemed not to have learned or inquired, but to know and remember everything about one. He made, on that occasion, a reference to my father with a tenderness of reminiscence that could not be

simulated or misunderstood. And then, too, he had a sort of unquestioned and unaffected dignity, which made all who served him incapable of negligence or imperfection. He was himself so strict and punctual in the performance of duty, so decisive in carrying out every detail to which he had pledged himself, that the example he had set was more potent even than any command. He said exactly what he thought, whether it was praise or blame, approval or disapproval; but it was all tempered by a just consideration for all who served him and an anxious regard for their contentment. He was the most loyal and sincere of friends, and never overlooked faithful service. And then he had an instinctive perception of the national character, the wholesome sentiment that underlies it, and the rooted dislike of all affectation. Thus he was without any question the most popular man in his dominions, and he deserved that popularity, because he had won it, not by scheming, but by work. He knew his business, and he meant to do it in a sturdy British fashion; he was absolutely independent, and lived his life on his own lines; but the truest part of that life was his entire devotion to his country and his empire. He was determined that Monarchy should be a thing and not a name; and yet he was equally determined that he would never outstep the traditions of his great position, but that he would respect the liberties

His popularity.

and rights of his subjects, just as he required of them that they should respect his own.

Neither must one omit another great kingly quality for which King Edward was royally conspicuous—his unflinching courage. He can hardly have been oblivious of the fact that his life was latterly a precarious one; he had frequent warnings, and he neither disregarded them nor unduly feared them. He just went forward, bravely and even gaily, and did not lay down his pen or leave his post until he stepped to his bed of death. He desired to live, with all the eagerness of a splendid vitality, but he had no craven fears: he looked neither backwards nor forwards, but made every moment of life his own. There were some who supposed that he had lived for so long, before his accession, a life of comparative independence that he would be unable or unwilling to take up the great responsibilities of the Crown. His share of royal duties had hitherto been confined to ceremonial appearances, and to representing the Sovereign on public occasions. The cares of State and the anxieties of Government were unfamiliar to him. But he reigned with no less zest and vivacity than he had lived his uncrowned life, with unabated vigor and undiminished enjoyment; and thus our sorrow need not make us oblivious of the fact that a death in harness was the death that he would most have desired, and that it is but a part of the felicity

His courage.

of a life so full of movement, so rich in honor and renown.

With the growth of democracy and popular liberty, monarchy is an institution that has undergone in the last century a subtle and remarkable change. It has ceded its political initiative, resigned its political veto; it is apparently restricted by constitutional and traditional limitations; and yet within the last seventy years, instead of losing preponderance and prestige, the Crown has insensibly and gradually acquired a position of immense responsibility and far-reaching influence, owing to the wisdom and insight, the tact and conscientiousness, the kindness and devotion, and, above all, the supreme common sense of the last two occupants of the Throne. It is easy to be impressed by the pomp and circumstance of state and natural to conclude that a distinguished courtesy and dignified acquiescence is all that is required of a constitutional monarch. But a very little reflection will show that the position is one of extreme delicacy and constant anxiety. A constitutional monarch must not only be possessed of endless industry and patience, a wide and accurate knowledge of causes and personalities; he must be at once firm and courteous; he must be both dignified and accessible. He must not only not manifest any personal political preferences, but he must banish every such consideration from his mind. He

The Crown's immense influence.

must be impartially just and sincerely sympathetic. He must be the friend of labor, order, and peace. He must have at heart the best interests and the true welfare of all classes and conditions of his subjects; and here in Great Britain he must interpret the pulse of that great Imperial spirit which beats so securely and so largely through a vast and complex Empire and animates such varied nationalities.

Queen Victoria adds prestige to the Crown.

Queen Victoria, by her womanly large-heartedness, her shrewdness, and experience, her quick and instinctive insight, gave to the Crown a unique prestige. When she died, it seemed impossible that this could be increased, and especially by a king who, out of filial reverence and wise judgment had been precluded from taking any active part in the government of the land. And yet by a sincere devotion to the cause of peace, by a genuine love for stately publicity, by an inimitable graciousness of demeanor, founded upon a perfectly natural human kindliness, King Edward contrived to smooth away political irritations and foreign complications alike, and to substitute for a certain stiff insularity in our European relations a cordial and unsuspicious understanding, the value of which it is impossible to over-estimate. He made it clear by his frankness and friendliness that though he was the guardian and protector of our national interests, yet that England was

no less conscious of the rights of other nations than of her own rights, and that she was as anxious to secure the just independence of other Powers as she was to preserve her own This great and happy result was brought about by the King's combination of instinctive amiability and open-minded fairness. All the qualities which underlie the British ideal of sport existed naturally in the King's temperament. He was ambitious without jealousy, modest under success, and good-humored under defeat. He was tranquil in anxiety, courageous in danger and simple in prosperity. And in English public life he set an example to all politicians and statesmen of genial courtesy and unruffled *bonhommie,* which did not stand for an absence of conviction, but for a resolute subordination of all predilections to harmony and concord.

The King's fairness.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S TRIP

(A.D. 1910)

LIONEL STRACHEY

NO MORTAL man ever made a journey anything like the fifteen-months expedition of ex-President Theodore Roosevelt, which began within three weeks of his successor's inauguration, and which was planned to end this 18th day of June. Private citizen Roosevelt returns to us now recognized the world over as the most versatile, the most energetic, the most outspoken, and, altogether, the most surprising of living Americans. He comes back to his native land after shooting lions and elephants, zebras and antelopes, monkeys and rabbits; riding in royal carriages and in plebeian public gondolas, on camels and on cowcatchers; reciting Dutch rimes to Boer farmers, quoting Arabic to Moslem savants; declining to visit the Pope under restrictions, and refusing to receive Protestants, who had made themselves offensive to that very Pope; telling the Egyptians at Cairo that it would be a long time before they were fit to govern themselves; at London informing the English that they still had things to learn about governing Egypt; commending Flemish

The most surprising American.

industries and condemning French "race-suicide"; and representing the United States as special ambassador at the funeral of Edward VII. the week after being hailed as "Mein Freund Roosevelt" by William II.!

Mr. Roosevelt sailed from Hoboken, New Jersey, in the steamer *Hamburg,* on the 23d of March, 1909. His general itinerary was southeastward, via the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, to Mombasa, thence northwest to the hunting grounds in British East Africa, north through the Sudan, by way of Khartum, to Alexandria, then back to Naples, up through the Apennine Peninsula to Vienna and Budapest; next a series of visits to important cities of northwestern Europe, and finally the homeward voyage from Southampton to New York. Roughly speaking, the tour was divided into two parts of ten and five months, the first being occupied with the hunting expedition, and the second, beginning in February, 1910, with continuous travel for the chief purposes of sightseeing, public addresses, and official receptions. The tour.

It was really in a scientific capacity that the ex-President left these shores in the *Hamburg* last year. For he went to Africa charged by the Smithsonian Institution to collect birds, mammals, reptiles, and plants—but especially specimens of big game—for the National Museum at Washington. Accompanied by his son Kermit, Mr. Roosevelt also had with

The party. him three American naturalists—Mr. J. A. Loring, Mr. Edmund Heller, and Surgeon-Lieutenant-Colonel Mearns, U. S. A., retired. On the outward voyage the party was joined at Naples by the world's most famous big-game hunter, Frederick Courtney Selous, and upon arrival in Africa was increased by two other noted sportsmen of British allegiance, Mr. Leslie Tarleton and Mr. R. J. Cunninghame.

The *Hamburg's* first stop was at Gibraltar. Here Mr. Roosevelt was met by the American Consul, in whose company and that of Gibraltar's Military Governor, General Sir Frederick Forestier-Walker, a veteran of the Boer War, our ex-President was taken for a drive through neutral territory. At Naples the party changed ship, from the *Hamburg* to the *Admiral,* another German steamer, but not without a call by Mr. Roosevelt on the Duke and Duchess of Aosta, at their beautiful palace of Capo di Monte. At Messina, where the *Admiral* anchored so as to enable the American travelers to inspect the ruins remaining from the great earthquake, Mr. Roosevelt was welcomed by His Royal Majesty, King Victor Emmanuel III., who requested the pleasure of a visit at the Quirinal on the return journey. Touching at Port Said and Suez, the *Admiral* proceeded down the Red Sea to Aden, at which place Mr. Roosevelt went ashore for a brief interval, and was shown about by the

Norwegian Consul (acting for the absent United States Consul). On April 21 the steamer entered the spacious and picturesque harbor at Mombasa, once a flourishing center of slave-trading, now the principal commercial town of the East African Protectorate. The British Acting Governor of the Protectorate, Mr. J. F. Jackson, greeted the distinguished "American cousin" with due honors, entertained him at Government House, and subsequently escorted him and his friends on their railroad journey "up country." To Africa.

The district where the Roosevelt expedition spent the time until the following February in shooting or trapping the specimens required is situated adjacent to the Equator, north and east of the vast lake commonly known as Victoria Nyanza, that exceeds Lake Michigan by about four thousand square miles. This region, which is traversed by the Uganda Railway, is described by Mr. Roosevelt himself in "Scribner's Magazine."

An elaborate equipment was necessary. Owing to the large number of specimens to be cured and stuffed for the National Museum, an enormous quantity of naturalists' supplies had to be brought, including four tons of salt for preparing the skins of captured animals. The scientific appliances, too, were of considerable quantity and variety. Besides the ammunition stores of both rifle and shotgun The equipment.

cartridges, several hundreds of traps had to be carried; the eminent leader of the party had provided himself with a 30-caliber army Springfield, a Winchester 405, a double-barreled 500-540 Holland, and a Fox No. 12 shotgun. Then there was the photographic apparatus to be transported, and the sixty-pound library of books, mostly bound in pig-skin, to say nothing of the tents, bedding, extra wearing apparel, and all the provisions! The latter were enriched by some cans of Boston beans and California peaches. Horses and Swahili negroes bore most of the burdens.

The caravan.

The caravan, or safari—a term denoting either a caravan itself or the expedition performed by it—was composed of two hundred porters, the tent-boys, the horse-boys, the native guard of soldiers, and sundry satellites and attendants. A quiet sorrel named Tranquillity was the ex-President's favorite mount during this great hunt, enacted in equatorial East Africa, the multifold interesting and exciting events of which he has himself recorded in print.

The hunting expedition concluded, Mr. Roosevelt embarked in a steamer—at Port Florence, in the northeast corner of Victoria Nyanza—which, on the 4th of February, 1910, landed him at the British military station of Entebbe, where a detachment of Indian troops was drawn up to salute the distinguished stranger. At Entebbe began the northward journey up through the Egyptian

Sudan, the first stage by caravan to Gondokoro and the next on the White Nile to Khartum. Here he was joined by Mrs. Roosevelt and his daughter Ethel, with whom, under guidance of the British Governor of the Province of Khartum, a visit was made by automobile to the monument to General Gordon, commemorating his gallant defense of the city in 1884. Here, too, the ex-President spoke to the students and teachers of the American mission, enjoining upon them extreme spiritual tolerance even toward non-Christians. After an excursion to the neighborhood of Kerreri, where in 1898 Lord Kitchener, with a mixed force of British and Egyptian troops, signally defeated a much larger body of Dervishes at the battle of Omdurman, the former Colonel of Rough Riders took train to Wady Halfa. During his sojourn of a few hours at this place, he took occasion to suggest to the Egyptian officers of the garrison how good for them was British rule. These remarks greatly incensed the Nationalist Party and press, whose anger was but increased through the still straighter talk at the new Egyptian University of Cairo, a week later, when they heard the so-called "political" assassination of Premier Boutros vigorously denounced, and also learned that "the training of a nation to fit it successfully to fulfil the duties of self-government is a matter, not of a decade or two, but of generations."

In the Egyptian Sudan.

At the Moslem University this omnivorous reader of books delighted the head of the venerable institution (founded about one thousand years ago) by asking to see the works of the thirteenth century traveler, known as Ibn Batuta, and by quoting a few phrases in Arabic. Meanwhile, on the way to Cairo, he had stopped to inspect the great Assouan Dam and the famous antiquities of Luxor and Thebes. On the last day of March he left African soil, departing by boat from Alexandria, whither Ambassador Straus had come in the United States war vessel *Scorpion* from Constantinople to meet him.

Roosevelt quotes Arabic.

"The 'big' story," so wrote the special correspondent of "Collier's," who went to Naples to meet the ex-President upon his return to Europe, "is simply a bulletin telling of the rejuvenescence of Roosevelt. He seems not to have a pound of superfluous weight. His eyes are markedly bright—and nothing gets by them. His skin is clear and his cheeks hard. Wrinkles are scarcely to be found—indeed, many a woman 'on the right side of forty' would be delighted if her face were as free from crows' feet." In such condition did Theodore Roosevelt arrive in Italy from Africa the 2d of April, on a triumphal old-world tour such as no American civilian ever experienced. In the European countries within whose frontiers he traveled—that is to say, all, with the exception of Russia, Switzer-

Roosevelt arrives in Italy.

land, and the Balkan and Iberian peninsulas —sovereigns and statesmen, peoples and parliaments, municipal and learned bodies did their utmost to honor the celebrated representative of the great North American Republic. He was fêted publicly and privately by the highest in every land. A family dinner or a carriage drive with royalty was a common occurrence. Thus there is room here only to mention the salient events of this unprecedented journey.

In the city of the Cæsars, Mr. Roosevelt was greeted by the King of Italy in person. Being Mr. Roosevelt, three days were enough for him to "do" the sights of that city, which boasts more of them than any single place in the whole world. Being Mr. Roosevelt, again, he declined to call upon Pius X. when conditions were made by the Pontifical Secretary of State through the American Ambassador. The Mayor of Rome, however, gave him a magnificent banquet, at which he apostrophized him as another Marcus Aurelius. By way of Spezia and Genoa, Marcus Aurelius Americanus reached Venice on April 14, but was off again after twelve hours, during which period he had found time for the things best worth looking at and for a lengthy audience to the Duke of the Abruzzi besides. The following day our truly "hustling" ex-President was shaking hands with Francis Joseph in that potentate's

In Rome.

double capacity of Austrian Emperor and Hungarian King; the public welcome he got in each of the two capitals was brilliantly enthusiastic. His Parisian week included a dinner by President Fallières, a luncheon by the City Council, an address to the students of the Sorbonne University on "Citizenship in a Republic," a visit to the tomb of Napoleon Bonaparte, a military parade and sham fight, and then a few minor things to fill up leisure moments. What the hero of San Juan Hill enjoyed most was the sham fight, particularly as his horse was a kicker. Still, he also relished admonishing the three thousand French people who listened to him at the Sorbonne that "the first essential in any civilization is that the man and the woman shall be father and mother of healthy children, so that the race shall increase and not decrease." During the stay at "The City of Light," Mr. Roosevelt attended a meeting held by the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences of the Institute of France, to which he had been elected a member while in Africa.

In Paris.

The chief incident of Mr. Roosevelt's stay at Brussels was his visit to the international exhibition there in company of the King of the Belgians. At The Hague, Queen Wilhelmina welcomed him in a charmingly gracious manner, and a member of her Cabinet said that he stood for the best principles of democracy, liberty, and self-government, de-

In the Low Countries.

claring, too, that the European admiration offered him was really Europe's homage to American ideals. Our former Chief Magistrate, on the other hand, told the worthy burgesses of Amsterdam that he was proud of the Dutch blood in his veins and glad to be in the home of his ancestors, who had left Holland before Rembrandt and De Ruyter were known. A warm, popular reception awaited him at Copenhagen. In Stockholm the Prime Minister of Sweden said at a complimentary public banquet: "Your motto, Colonel Roosevelt, has been honesty, justice, and good character in every citizen." Meanwhile, the one-time leader of Rough Riders had delivered his address before the Nobel Peace Prize Committee at Christiania, in recognition of the bestowal of that prize upon him for instigating the cessation of the Russo-Japanese War, declaring: "No man is worth calling a man who will not fight rather than submit to infamy. . . . No nation deserves to exist if it permits itself to lose the stern and virile virtues. . . . It would be a master stroke if those great powers honestly bent on peace would form a League of Peace, not only to keep the peace among themselves, but to prevent, by force if necessary, its being broken by others."

In Scandinavia.

To us Americans the most interesting item, by far, cabled from Berlin was the Emperor's "Mein Freund Roosevelt," words spoken by

"Mein Freund Roosevelt."

William II. to Theodore Roosevelt after a march past by twelve thousand picked imperial soldiery, the war lord of the mailed fist then adding: "You are the first civilian who has ever reviewed German troops." That evening the Roosevelts dined with the Hohenzollerns. Next day the Kaiser and Kaiserin sat listening to the *Freund's* historical and sociological lecture on "The World Movement," at the University of Berlin, and witnessed the conferment upon him there of a honorary doctorate of philosophy.

"This world movement of civilization, this movement which is now felt throbbing in every corner of the globe, should bind the nations of the world together while yet leaving unimpaired that love of country in the individual citizen which in the present stage of the world's progress is essential to the world's well-being. . . . Each people can do justice to itself only if it does justice to others; but each people can do its part in the world movement for all only if it first does its duty within its own household. The good citizen must be a good citizen of his own country first before he can with advantage be a citizen of the world at large."

So did the Republican orator conclude his address, applauded by imperial hands.

In England.

But the "nail" (as the French say) of the ex-Presidential European tour was yet to be driven. It happened in London. May 31

was the date—ten days only previous to departure for home. The sudden death of King Edward had cast a gloom, not alone over the metropolis, but over the country at large; the whole mourning nation was too absorbed in its own grief to have much thought of hurrahing for a stranger, even a cousinly stranger different from foreigners. Thus Mr. Roosevelt's first two weeks in England were perforce relatively inactive, though he went to Cambridge for investment with the honorary degree of doctor of laws. However, there was general approval on both sides of the sea at his participation, as a special envoy of the United States, in the obsequies of the lamented monarch, when he took his place in a procession of dignitaries which included nine rulers and two dozen princes. Afterward—almost as a matter of course—he broke bread with George V. Not until a fortnight after arriving in England did he make the speech that has created such a sensation, that was cabled to all ends of the earth, quoted in all languages, everywhere discussed by intelligent people, and adopted as battle-cry by political opponents of the present British Administration. In the presence of Sir E. Grey, the Foreign Secretary; John Burns, another Cabinet Minister; Lord Strathcona, the High Commissioner for Canada; Lord Cromer, the great retired "Proconsul" of Egypt; the Hon. Arthur Balfour, once Prime Minister and

The Guildhall speech.

now leader of the Opposition in the House of Commons; United States Ambassador Whitelaw Reid—in the presence of these and many more notabilities of official Britain, the Lord Mayor of London presented Mr. Roosevelt with the freedom of the city in the old historic Guildhall. Then, after receiving the costly golden casket wherein lay that honorific document, Mr. Roosevelt turned to the representatives of British imperial rule as there assembled, and to their very faces made the address which proved the climax of the whole fifteen months' happenings—this outline of which may fitly be concluded with the boldest sentences from the Guildhall speech:

The climax of the tour.

"You have tried to do too much in the interests of the Egyptians themselves. Those who have to deal with uncivilized peoples, especially fanatical peoples, must remember that in such a situation as that which faces you in Egypt, weakness, timidity, and sentimentality may cause infinitely more harm than violence and injustice. . . . In certain vital points you have erred, and it is for you to make good your error. . . . Either you have or you have not the right to remain in Egypt and establish and keep order. If you have not the right, and have not the desire to keep order, then, by all means, get out."

RETURN OF HALLEY'S COMET

(A.D. 1910)

A. C. D. CROMMELIN

WE HAVE the privilege this year of welcoming a rare visitor, that few indeed of those now living have seen before, or can expect to see again. Its visits occur at intervals of three-quarters of a century, or more exactly it makes thirteen visits in 1,000 years. The idea of welcoming a comet is one that would have sounded strange to our ancestors, who regarded these visitors with terror as most ill-omened and precursors of plague, famine, and war. Their terror was not wholly unreasonable, for even from our modern standpoint, comets remain in many respects very mysterious; to the ancients the mysteries that they presented were quite baffling and seemed to traverse all that they knew, or thought they knew about the heavenly movements, which they rightly regarded as the embodiment of majestic law and order. "Let them be for signs and for seasons and for days and years"; "He hath established them for ever and for ages of ages"; "He hath made a decree, and it shall not pass away." We may not all of us realize how fully these

A celebrated heavenly visitor.

movements were understood even 2,000 years ago; thus Fathers Epping and Strassmaier published a work a few years ago on the Babylonian astronomy as revealed by the cuneiform tablets, in which they showed that a regular astronomical almanac like our Nautical Almanac was published year by year, predicting the places of the sun, moon, and planets for the year. When they came to the comets, however, their power of prediction utterly broke down. These were utterly unlike the other bodies in their appearance and their movements, which refused to conform to the Zodiac or track of the planets, but were at random in all directions, and in all parts of the heavens. They were often so extremely rapid as to suggest great proximity, possibly even within the confines of our own atmosphere, in which case the apprehension was quite natural that evil effects, such as pestilence and famine, might be the result of their approach. It was indeed almost impossible for the ancients to form a true idea of the cometary movements; their mathematical knowledge was not sufficient. Seneca, an illustrious Roman philosopher, who lived at the beginning of the Christian era, made a remarkable prediction about comets: "Some day there will arise a man who will demonstrate in what regions of the heavens the comets take their way, why they journey so far apart from the other planets; what their size,

Ancient predictions.

their nature." For over 1,600 years this remarkable prophecy remained a dead letter; then at last the man appeared of whom it is said:

"Nature and Nature's laws lay hid in night,
God said, 'Let Newton be,' and all was light."

Halley's computations.

Halley, who had more inclination than Newton for the huge arithmetical computations required, entered into the new ideas with enthusiasm, and computed the orbits of all the comets for which observations of the necessary accuracy were available. They were twenty-four in number, and went back for about 200 years before his time. By a piece of good fortune, which he had most richly merited by his assiduous labors, the same comet occurred three times in his list, and when he came to tabulate the results he noticed that the comets of 1531, 1607, and 1682 were travelling in practically the same orbit round the sun.

Making a rough allowance for the action of Jupiter, Halley said that the comet might be expected to return to perihelion at the end of 1758 or the beginning of 1759; be it noted that this was the first time in the world's history that the return of a comet had been predicted.

Halley was fully conscious of the new epoch in astronomy that he was opening, and said: "Quo circa si secundum predicta nostra redierit iterum circa annum 1758, hoc pri-

mum ab homine Anglo inventum fuisse non inficiabitur æqua posteritas."

Scepticism in England.

It is rather a curious commentary on these words that it is just in England that we find scepticism expressed as to the fulfilment of the prediction. The well-known French astronomers, Clairaut and Lalande, were so convinced of the truth of Halley's prediction, that they undertook, and with the help of Madame Lepante, successfully carried out the computation of the planetary perturbations for the two revolutions of the comet, 1607-1682 and 1682-1759. Their result was successful, considering that the masses of Jupiter and Saturn were still imperfectly known, and that Uranus and Neptune were undiscovered. The date they assigned was just a month too late, the comet being found by the amateur astronomer, Palitsch, on Christmas day, 1758, and passing its nearest point to the sun on March 13, 1759.

Perhaps Halley's reputation shone all the more brightly from the temporary scepticism; it was certainly a noble achievement to have robbed this comet of the superstitious dread which for centuries had accompanied its appearance, and to have transformed it from an aimless wanderer to a permanent member of the solar system, whose behavior can now be foretold almost as accurately as that of the planets.

Halley recognized that his comet might be

carried backwards as well as forwards, by studying cometary records, and he was successful in identifying the comet of 1456 as the same body. Before that time his efforts were less successful; failing to realize how greatly the period of the comet might be altered by the action of the planets, he proceeded with a uniform time-interval, and deduced a series of returns which were all erroneous, extending back to the comet stated to have been observed at the death of Julius Cæsar, and that very brilliant one that is said to have signalized the birth of Mithridates.

It was not until the Nineteenth Century that the early history of the comet was placed on a more satisfactory basis. M. Langier showed that Halley was wrong in taking the comet of 1380 as his; the right one was that of 1378; he also showed that the comets of A. D. 451 and 760 were in all probability the same body. A few years later Dr. Hind, who was for many years the superintendent of the Nautical Almanac, drew up a list of conjectural identifications for every return from 12 B. C. to A. D. 1301, some fairly certain from the exactitude with which their paths had been described, others admittedly vague and doubtful. In the last few years a large piece of computational work, in which I have borne a part, has been carried out with the object of testing Hind's list.

Hind's identifications.

The effect of the planets on the period of

the comet has been calculated for each revolution, and conjecture has given place to certainty. On the whole, Hind's list was singularly accurate, but he was seriously wrong in two cases: in A. D. 608 he was one and a half years too late, and in A. D. 1223 nearly a year too late. The history of the comet now extends with certainty to 240 B. C. and with some degree of probability to 613 B. C. in the autumn of which year a comet passed through the Great Bear. The great cometographer Pingré fancied that this comet might be alluded to by the prophet Jeremiah (1:13): "I see a seething pot, and the face thereof is toward the north." He even conjectured that the "rod watching," in verse 11, might be the tail of the comet; Pingré suggested that the tail was seen before the head had risen; when the latter appeared it resembled a cauldron with steam rising from it. The insertion of the word "north" lends color to the suggestion that a celestial apparition may be indicated.

These guesses seem to me to be extremely doubtful, but the interest of finding a possible reference to our comet in Scripture justified us in quoting them. Two revolutions later, in 467 B. C., both Anaxagoras and Aristotle relate that a meteoric stone fell at Aegospotami and that a comet was seen at the same time.

Early observances.

It is interesting to find these events mentioned in juxtaposition at such an early date. This

comet was also seen in China, but unfortunately no details are given of its track through the constellations, so its identification is doubtful. Three revolutions later we come to our first certain identification in 240 B. C., when the Chinese annals state that a comet was seen first in the east, then in the north, and finally for sixteen days in May in the west. The return in 12 B. C. is interesting, being so near the birth of Our Lord, which, according to the date assigned by Lieutenant-Colonel Mackinlay, fell four years later. This comet is described with great fulness in the Chinese annals, to which we are indebted for most of our knowledge of ancient comets; the European records are far less precise, and in this case simply relate that "A comet was seen for several days; it appeared suspended over the city of Rome; then it appeared to break up into several little torches." Halley's comet next appeared in A. D. 66, January, four years before the fall of Jerusalem. It is not impossible that this was the comet resembling a sword, which, according to Josephus, appeared suspended over Jerusalem shortly before its fall. Then follow returns on A. D. 141, March 25; A. D. 218, April 6 (described as a terrifying spectacle, preceding the death of the Emperor Macrinus); A. D. 295, April 7; A. D. 373, November 7; A. D. 451, July 3. This comet came about the time of the defeat of Attila by Ætius; it is referred to by Idatius,

Chinese records of comet.

who says it was seen as a morning star in June, and an evening star in July. The Chinese annals accurately describe its course from the Pleiades through Leo, ending near Beta Leonis, A. D. 530, November, when it was described as very grand and terrifying, resembling a burning torch; A. D. 607, March; A. D. 684, October. This appearance is interesting from a rough sketch in the Nuremberg Chronicle that purports to represent it; there is however no proof that it is really contemporary; A. D. 760, June, very full Chinese record, enabling Laugier to confidently identify the comet as Halley's; A. D. 837, February 25, taken by Louis le Debonnaire as a sign of his approaching death; A. D. 912, July, a return which till lately rested on computation only, no observation being known. A Japanese astronomer, Hirayama, has now found a record of its visibility in Japan from July 19 to 28. A. D. 989, September 2; A. D. 1066, March 25; this is the apparition that is associated with the Norman Conquest. The terror that it caused in England is illustrated by the manner in which it was apostrophised by Elmer, a monk of Malmesbury.

Former appearances.

On the other side of the Channel, William of Normandy took the comet as of good omen for himself, and one of his courtiers wrote the following doggerel lines upon it:

"Cæsariem, Cæsar, tibi si natura negavit
Hanc, Willelme, tibi stella comata dedit."

As is well known, the comet is portrayed on the Bayeux tapestry, and this is the oldest representation of it that is certainly authentic. Crude as it is, there are two features that are confirmed by modern photographs—the tall streamers, radiating like a fan from the nucleus, and the luminous masses which have the aspect of moving rapidly outwards. The Bayeux tapestry.

A group of Normans gazed at the comet in wonder: "Ista miratur stella." In the adjoining panel of the tapestry Harold is represented quaking on his throne under the combined terrors of the comet, the landing of the Norsemen, and the threatened Norman invasion A. D. 1145, April 19. This return is of special interest, since the perihelion passage was on the same day as in the present year, and consequently the motion and behavior of the comet are closely similar. Some interesting colloquial details are given by Hirayama. It was first seen about April 20 as a morning star; by May 9, its tail was 5° long; about May 15 it passed the sun and became an evening star. The next day, the chronicler says, "The tail was 5° long, directed towards the east; the end was concealed by clouds; I went out of the door and saw it." On May 17 the tail was 20° long. On June 4 the head was seen, but the tail had disappeared, to the astonishment of Moronaga, a friend of the chronicler. The tail reappeared on June 8, and moonlight is stated to have been the cause

of its disappearance earlier. It was followed in Japan till June 18, and in China till July 14. I have myself no doubt that the intrinsic lustre of the comet has greatly declined since the Middle Ages, though it is right to say that Dr. Holetschek, a great authority on the subject, takes an opposite view. The return of September, 1222, is one in which we (Mr. Cowell and myself) may justifiably take some pride, as we were the first to show that this grand object was Halley's comet; the much feebler object of July, 1223, had previously been taken for it. That of 1222 must have been a very striking sight; the Japanese say that the head was white, and as large as the half-moon; the tail was red, 17° in length. The European records state that in August a star of the first magnitude appeared, very red, with a long tail pointing to the zenith. Compared with it the moon appeared as if dead, and seemed to have no more light. The fact that both in Europe and Japan it was compared to the moon shows what a splendid object it must have been.

Former splendor.

Historians also give a glowing account of its splendor in October, 1301, when it appeared in mid-September in Gemini, and went through Ursa Major to Corona and Hercules, being visible for forty-six days. It was seen in all parts of the known world but, as in most of the ancient returns, the Chinese records are much the more precise; indeed

without their aid it would have been quite impossible to carry back this long chain of identifications. Let us give them the credit they deserved for their patient, long sustained vigils, which have added so greatly to our knowledge of the history of this comet.

We now have an array of some twenty-nine observed returns, many of them recorded as objects of great splendor. The first reflection suggested by them is the close touch that we are brought into with far-distant centuries in being able to contemplate the very same body that has so often filled the world with wonder and admiration.

Advantage of photography.

We have the great advantage of photography during the present apparition for giving a continuous and reliable record of all the variations, as also for enabling the comet to be detected eight months before perihelion passage, at which time it was of the sixteenth magnitude, that is, it only gave 1-10,000 of the light of a sixth magnitude star, which itself is barely visible to the unaided eye. For the first few months the comet brightened up rapidly, and by mid-November it was an easy object in telescopes of moderate size, being as bright as the tenth magnitude. Then the increase seemed to be arrested, and it only increased very slightly in brightness up to the middle of January; but by the end of that month there were evident signs of a tail forming, and by mid-February the comet was seen

by the naked eye by Professor Wolf, who had also been the first to detect its presence on the photographic plate.

A photograph taken at Juvisy showed quite a conspicuous tail, and a drawing at the beginning of March showed a remarkable double tail, not unlike some of the sketches made in 1835. The comet was then lost in the sunlight but reappeared as a morning star about the middle of April. It had greatly brightened during its absence, and was now of the second magnitude. At 4.30 A. M. on April 20th it passed its perihelion and commenced another revolution which will not be completed till early in 1986. I have myself seen it early in May, when it was quite conspicuous, in spite of its being very near the horizon, and the sky having begun to brighten. We have thus every reason to look for a fairly good display as an evening star during the last ten days of May, though it is right to warn those who saw the great comet of 1882, or Donati's comet in 1858, that there will be nothing to compare with these from a spectacular point of view. It may not even equal the bright object which formed a nine days' wonder last January. It is just because the old records speak of it as one of the brightest comets of its time that I think it must have greatly declined since then.

The shortest revolution.

The revolution just completed is much the shortest on record, and this is due to the fact

that both in 1834 and in 1836 Jupiter was placed exactly behind the comet and reduced its speed considerably on each occasion. That a record passage should be the result of reduced speed sounds rather paradoxical, but the case is like that of a thrower's arm being held when he throws a stone into the air; it will not rise so high and comes back to earth sooner. So the comet has not gone so far into space as usual on the last revolution, and the sun's attraction has been able to bring it back more quickly. Our own earth assisted in the shortening of the revolution to the extent of one week, the comet having been near us in October, 1835. One of the chief points of interest in the calculation is to see whether there is any indication of unknown forces acting on the comet. The actual return is three days later than the calculated one, and, from the precautions taken, it is inferred that at least two of these days are due to some unknown cause, not to errors in the calculation. The unknown cause may be a planet beyond Neptune, or a resisting medium or the reaction produced on the nucleus by the emission of the tail-matter.

Quotations from Sir G. Airy.

Two quotations from Sir G. Airy's address on presenting the Astronomical Society's medal to Professor Rosenberger in 1835, come in very appropriately here: "How are these wild bodies to be disciplined to our service? They are to be sent forth as spies;

they are to go in directions in which no planets move; they are to explore spaces in which no other bodies are known to exist; and they are to return bringing us an account, such as the physical astronomer can read, of the forces to which they have been subjected, and of the nature of the spaces through which they have passed. Have the anomalous motions of Uranus caused some astronomers to suspect the existence of a large planet beyond him? Then may we hope that Halley's or Olbers' comet will, in some revolution, feel its effect while far beyond our sight, and will return to our eyes still bearing in its disturbed motions a trace of the perturbations which it has undergone. Has it for ages past been conjectured that some matter exists in the planetary space which in time may sensibly affect the motions of the most dense bodies? Then will the comparative insignificance of comets be more likely to feel its effects."

Anomalous motions of Uranus.

We have seen a comet whose last appearance it is probable that no man living can distinctly recollect—whose period exceeds the limit of ordinary life—whose path extends into spaces far beyond any which in other parts of physical astronomy we have need to consider—we have seen it return within a day of its computed time, and have traced it through the heavens, describing nearly the path which had been laid down for it. I confess that the sight of this strange body and the

contemplation of the uniformity of the law which has guided its motions, and of the acquaintance with that law and the power of tracing its effect, which man has acquired, have been to me a source of intense pleasure. And I doubt not that the same gratification has been experienced by every astronomer who has been accustomed to regard his sublime science on the one hand as the most severe exercise of the intellect, and on the other hand as the study which leads most certainly to a knowledge of the general laws of the universe.

I hope I have now said enough to show that Halley's comet, while it cannot in these modern days offer us a spectacle of surpassing grandeur, ought nevertheless to awaken deep interest in all thoughtful minds from the long vista of history down which it carries us, from its being the first comet in the world's history whose return was ever foretold, and perhaps most of all from its association with the great Englishman whose name it will bear for all time.

The first comet whose return was foretold.

[General Botha, Premier of the Transvaal, summoned to form the first Cabinet of United South Africa. Centenary of Argentine Republic celebrated. G. H. Curtiss flies from Albany to New York. French submarine *Pluvoise* collides with mail steamer off Calais (26 drowned). Captain Scott's British

South Polar expedition sails from London. Two hundred families expelled from Kieff. Discovery of six more chemical elements announced from Munich by Professor Mutchman. Charles K. Hamilton flies from Governor's Island to Philadelphia. England and France connected by submarine telephone wire. Senate passes Arizona and New Mexico Statehood Bill. Roosevelt returns to New York and receives ovation. Zeppelin begins dirigible balloon passenger service from Friedrichsruhe to Düsseldorf.

Diaz re-elected President of Mexico.

Diaz re-elected President of Mexico. German Dreadnought launched at Dantzig. British Academy of Letters organized. Port Arthur opened to the shipping of all nations. Don Jaime, Spanish Pretender, threatens religious war. Spanish Ambassador to the Vatican recalled. Maura, Spanish ex-Premier, shot and wounded at Barcelona. Dr. H. H. Crippen and Ethel Leneve arrested on board the *Montrose,* near Quebec, by means of wireless. Asiatic cholera epidemic in Russia. British House of Lords passes the bill amending the Coronation Oath. Persian revolutionists defeated in the streets of Teheran. Mayor Gaynor of New York shot in Hoboken, N. J. Fire at Brussels Exposition. Asiatic cholera in Italy. Eightieth birthday of Emperor of Austria celebrated. Castro's family exiled from Venezuela. Plot to overthrow Manuel, King of Portugal, discovered.

Korea annexed to Japan. Edison demonstrates his new kinetophone, or picture-talking machine. German Emperor makes a speech at Königsberg emphasizing the "Divine Right of Kings," by which the Kings of Prussia rule. Montenegro becomes a kingdom. English chemist discovers a new aluminium alloy, duralumin. International Court of Arbitration settles Newfoundland fisheries case. Centenary of Chilian Independence celebrated. First Chinese Senate opened by the Regent. Manuel of Portugal dethroned and a Republic proclaimed with Braga as President.]

Montenegro becomes a kingdom.

THE PORTUGUESE REVOLUTION

(A.D. 1910)

E. J. DILLON

"OF ALL modern revolutions none were so humane as those of Brazil and Portugal." This remark was made to me a few days ago by Senhor Theophilo Braga, Poet, Positivist, and President of the newest European republic. "How do you explain that?" I asked. "Partly," he replied, "by the temper of the two nations that shook off the monarchist yoke; they are both Portuguese, but largely because they were permeated with republican and, in our country, with positivist, ideas which first produced a revolution in the souls of the young generation and of the leaders of thought, then suddenly translated themselves into acts and are now about to crystallize into institutions." The President then went on to unfold to me the characteristic traits of the national character, in which, he maintains, the Celtic element predominates, and to show how they manifested themselves in the revolution. Without calling this theory in question, I may say that the proximate causes of the upheaval, which I was enabled to study at close quarters, make

A humane revolution.

it clear to the dullest apprehension why the old fabric of monarchical government could be pulled down almost without an effort.

The murder of King Carlos and his heir in February, 1908, seemed to me the overture of a revolutionary movement which would go on steadily gaining strength until it culminated in a catastrophe. My grounds for this opinion were many and cogent. I had been informed that the motive of the murder was not so much to put an end to the political dictatorship of Joao Franco as to hinder the purification of the administration which Franco was about to carry out without ruth. And as the only parties who indulged in jobbery, and despoiled the people for the behoof of their own political partisans, were the two groups of monarchists who alternately enjoyed the sweets of office, it could be taken for granted that they were implicated in the violent death of their Sovereign. Events bore out this deduction. For neither party when in power would open an impartial inquiry into the assassination of the king or seek to bring the regicides to justice. It was fair to conclude, therefore, that so long as the monarchists continued in power, there would be no surcease of misery for the Portuguese people, whose only hope was in a republic. A bloody overture.

Was it worth while making a resolute stand at a heavy cost of human life against the men who were fighting to abolish this rotten royal-

ist fabric? It was, I believe, the semiconscious feeling of the utter unfruitfulness of the combat, and even the victory that paralyzed the arm of the Government. Meanwhile events were moving rapidly, and the signs of the times growing plainer.

On Sunday, October 2, for example, Marshal Fonseca, the President-elect of the Republic of Brazil was in Lisbon, the guest of the king and the nation, and he was acclaimed enthusiastically by the people. Returning from a visit to Cintra, on arriving near the palace set apart for his use at Belem* he found the place blocked by a dense throng of people eager to see and welcome him. His carriage could not advance. Then my friend, Joao de Menezes, who had been presented to the President as one of the Republican deputies for Lisbon, said: "With your permission, I will say a word to the people, and they will at once open a wide avenue for your carriage to pass." But Marshal Fonseca, stepping down, took de Menezes' arm and said: "No, I had rather walk." And de Menezes escorted the nation's guest to his apartments. Returning a moment later, Dr. Menezes said to the crowd: "You now see how easy it is to instal a President of the Republic in a royal palace," whereupon vociferous cheering rent the air. That night Dr. Brito Camacho, in a speech he made to a republican assembly, recounted

Lisbon welcomes Fonseca.

* It is known as the Paco de Belem.

this incident and said: "One palace is already taken by the Republic. The others will be occupied with equal facility."

Evidently the time was come for trying the issue. The Monday night fixed upon for the meeting and the insurrection was a night of late-summer warmth and loveliness. Not a breath was stirring. The very stars in their courses were fighting for the republicans. The face of the broad Tagus was like the surface of a mirror. Lights were twinkling from windows of the houses on the hills. The traffic, which in Lisbon never wholly ceases throughout the night, was brisker than usual. Men hurried hither and thither, whispering as they went. The king, whose residence at this season is Cintra, a delightful place of woods and hills, some seventeen miles from the capital, had come into town to entertain his Brazilian guest, and was now reposing in the ill-omened palace of Necessidades. That royal domicile had a mysterious way of bringing death or misfortune upon those who resided in it, and the authorities of Lisbon once besought King Louis I., for whose life they professed great anxiety, to quit it, which he at once did, escorted by thousands of people carrying torches. Prince John, who could not leave, died the next day. While King Manuel was reposing there, the Minister of War, who might be expected to know something of what was going on, lay fast asleep.

The ill-omened palace of Necessidades.

The Minister of Justice was having his fling at a fashionable restaurant at Cascaes, a charming watering-place, about forty minutes from the capital. The Prime Minister had his eyes and ears open, but his arm was palsied. He dealt no blow to the insurgents. He presumably anticipated troubles of some kind—indeed he had been expecting them daily since the murder of Dr. Bombarda. He was watching and waiting, anxious but quiescent.

A number of established facts prove decisively that Bombarda's death did not hasten the revolution. Bombarda was killed at 11.30 A. M. on Monday, October 4. When mortally wounded he sent for de Menezes and Brito Camacho and said: "I expected to be potted one of these days, just as you still do. But, great heavens! not in this silly fashion." That expectation of his and of theirs was due to the fact that the date for the outbreak had already been fixed, and fixed—unwittingly, of course—by the Government. For it had been agreed upon, ever since September 14, by the republicans that if the authorities should issue orders to the warships to quit the Tagus, the date given by them for that departure should be the date of the rising. The time was therefore settled automatically. And before Bombarda was wounded, even before the day had dawned on which he was killed, orders had been promulgated that the ships were to leave

The plot is brewing.

the Tagus on October 4. That settled the question.*

Yet now was the time for the monarchists to act. If they but knew what a little exertion would have sufficed to checkmate their adversaries, and if they had had faith even as a grain of mustard seed in their own cause, they would have made the birth of the republic an abortion. Thus, three times they had it in their power to stamp out revolution, were it not that in this case revolution had a soul—as President Braga put it—which powder and ball cannot destroy: on the eve of the murder of King Carlos and his eldest son, if in lieu of arresting the leaders of the conspiracy which had been revealed to him, the dictator, Franco, had followed the advice given by his War Minister, made adequate preparations, allowed the mutineers to come into the streets and had blown them into space, the fabric of the monarchy which Franco was endeavoring to purify might have lingered on. And now throughout this fateful night and the next day the king and his Cabinet, if they

The weakness of the Premier.

*Since the above was written the Premier has allowed himself to be interviewed, and has given his own account of his action and inaction. And the impression made by this narrative in Lisbon is that it emanates either from a secret accomplice of the republicans or from an individual of weak mind. And Senhor Teixeira de Sousa is known as a clever man. He admits what I stated throughout—that he knew the date of the outbreak, and that he also informed the king. He adds that he was sure of crushing it. Yet he did not send for a single monarchist regiment from the provinces until the railway line was cut!

had been willing to risk anything for their cause or their places, might have silenced republicanism with no greater effusion of blood than they paid for discomfiture. But there were no monarchists and no monarch. How easily, had there been both, they would have scored over their adversaries, will appear from the following incident:

No monarchists and no monarch.

A short time before the fateful hour of half-past one, the Minister of the Marine signalled to the ships in the Tagus asking the crews whether they were quite ready to enter into action against an armed rising should it become necessary, and adding that, if not, they were to prepare without a moment's delay. This message came like the bursting of a bomb. It seemed to indicate that the Government were aware of the plot and were adopting vigorous precautions to thwart it. Perhaps the leaders were already arrested? Possibly the soldiers of the Royal or Municipal Guard, who were devoted to the monarchy, body and soul, were posted on the heights? Nobody could tell. But the signals agreed upon were delayed, nor were they ultimately given aright. Dismay was in the souls of many of the conspirators.

An unexpected message.

Admiral Candido dos Reis, however, was serene and hopeful. It was his *rôle* to embark in a boat with some comrades, board the warship *San Raphael,* and then return to the city with a contingent of insurgents, who should

take up their position in one of the streets while the naval artillery opened fire from the warship. But at the fateful moment his comrades drew back. They were apprehensive of harming the cause instead of furthering it. They thought they had good reasons for surmising that their plot had been discovered, and therefore baffled, and they were unwilling to sacrifice the lives of brave men to no purpose. He entreated them to be daring, but they were resolved to be prudent. Their obstinacy could not be shaken. Reis, thereupon, concluded that all was lost. If the very first step could not be taken, how could they march to victory? He felt that he ought to have allowed and provided for this contingency, and not having done so he had plunged the nation into an abyss of misery. He at least would not survive it. A few minutes later he lay lifeless on the floor. This in truth was the catastrophe of catastrophes. Men wept bitterly on learning it. For Reis was in truth indispensable to the insurrection. He knew every detail of the plan; he was acquainted with every man deputed to play a part in carrying it out. He possessed the valuable secret of drawing crowds towards and after him. His name was a charm, his presence was a pledge of success, and his death was an irreparable loss. Many conspirators hung their heads on learning that their leader was no more; the less intelligent among them in-

Death of Reis.

ferred that he committed suicide only because he foresaw the failure of the plot. He would surely have lived so long as there was hope. One of the enterprising republican newsmongers placarded the walls with the news of Reis's death, heedless of the crushing effect it would produce on their prospects. And even the lion-hearted broke down and cried, "All is lost!"

One man kept his head and initiative during this inner crisis. He summoned a few friends hurriedly, exposed to them the danger of yielding to vague apprehensions. "Do not let us be reasoned into defeat, seeing that we have not been beaten or even attacked. In my friend Reis we lost a hero whose best quality was that he made his services dispensable before he left us. No loss is irreparable when the cause is a nation's. The other side may have much worse luck. Suppose the King should flee, who will fight for a fugitive? And we may have windfalls. Suppose one of the regiments supposed to be royalist should join us? True, the average man will not reason thus; he will be crushed by the tidings that Reis is no more. It was a blunder to spread the news. We must deny it emphatically, immediately, everywhere." This man's advice was taken, placards and notices were posted and circulated throughout the city asserting that the news of Reis's death was

Reis's death is denied.

* "Nomina sunt odiosa"!

groundless. The Admiral was living and doing splendid work, and hoped the people would second his endeavors. That man and his tactics saved the situation, and one day the republic will erect a statue to his memory.

About three-quarters of an hour after Reis's death the guns of the *San Raphael* boomed out, and the rising had begun. One half of the 16th Infantry Regiment mutinied. The colonel resisted energetically, and was killed on the spot. The mutineers then repaired to the 1st Artillery Regiment, who turned out and joined them, and both forces marched to the principal thoroughfare of Lisbon, Avenida, and took up a strong position on the summit. The Royalist (Municipal) Guard and the 5th Foot Chasseurs repaired to another street, the Rocio, where they were exposed to the republican fire. Called upon to surrender by the mutineers, they refused, and heavy firing went on until six o'clock in the morning, when it became desultory until noon. The prophecy of the optimist leader was fulfilled; a regiment on whose support the rebels had not counted joined them. One of the most important factors of that night was the meeting of the marines of the principal barracks of Alcantara.* Their second commander refusing to go with them, he was taken prisoner and paroled. On the Tagus, three warships—viz., *San Raphael, San Gabriel* and

The rising.

* It is about a mile and a half from Lisbon.

Adamastor—had hoisted the republican flag and were endeavoring to win over the fourth, *Don Carlos,* which held out obstinately for a time.

The king is awakened.

The king's slumbers were broken by the heavy firing. He arose, looked out of the windows and inquired: "Is it the revolution that has begun?" thus prejudging the issue and giving his own case away by the very form of his question. The answer being affirmative, he rose and dressed. Already grenades were bursting over the palace. He left that ill-omened domicile at about 4 A. M., and sought to put himself into communication with Queen Amelia, who was at Cintra. In this he was successful, thanks to the good offices of loyal friends. As soon as was feasible he repaired to his palace at Mafra, having been circuitously informed that, as a fugitive, the republic would connive at his escape, that the road northwards would be open, and that he would not be molested if he departed by sea, but that if he resisted he would be dealt with as an enemy. At Mafra many persons, it is said, sought out the king, and offered him their arms and their lives, but this offer evoked no other response than heartfelt thanks.

The good luck of the republicans.

Meanwhile, the republicans were making headway. They had more than one pleasant surprise to make up for their bad beginning. They had the support of one naval officer

named Machado Santos—with whom I had the pleasure of conversing on the subject—who worked marvels of organization. Single-handed, he went from street to street, from barracks to barracks, enlisting volunteers in the ranks of the people's army, and soon his followers were numbered by thousands. He fixed his headquarters on the Square of the Marques Pombal, and the population at once brought him oxen and sheep and goats and fruits and bread and wine, until the only difficulty experienced by his commissary was in distributing the food which came in plentifully and unceasingly. The active sympathy of the people of Lisbon stood the revolutionists in good stead.

Another "windfall" on which they had not counted appeared in the presence of the cadets of the Military School, who at the call of Santos broke bounds and joined the republican forces. They, too, fought splendidly, and one of them named Pimentel acquired a reputation for daring which is usually the prize of one or more hard-fought campaigns. Another man who rendered brilliant services was a simple private in the naval artillery. His precision in pointing the guns was so perfect that his comrades looked upon him with a feeling of awe. He had a way of announcing in advance the target at which he would point the gun, and a few seconds later it was struck. When perceiving the royal standard

The cadets join the revolutionists.

still waving from the palace he stated that he would blow it into space, and, having fulfilled his prediction, immediately afterwards he was cheered vociferously.

Conceiro and the royalists.

But the royalists, too, had ups as well as downs during their critical thirty hours, had there been any one to utilize them. Chief among these was the arrival of the second artillery regiment from Quelhiz. Its commander was Henriquez Conceiro, who had made a name in Africa as a clever strategist and in Portugal as a devoted royalist and a chivalrous gentleman. This man's presence seemed to turn the tide of battle. Planting his artillery in a park named after King Edward VII. of England, he opened fire on the infantry and artillery of the republicans, and made a strong impression on them. During a pause in the firing, they asked him to cease fighting for a king who had already acknowledged the republic. He refused the invitation and disbelieved the statement. But he sought out the monarch, he and his officers, in order to hearten him to resistance and to declare his intention, and that of his men, to make a resolute stand for the *régime*. On his arrival at the palace of Cintra, however, he was informed that the king was not there. "Where is he?" he asked. "He has fled in a yacht," was the answer. Then Commander Conceiro, who had never before been known to make use of a scurrilous word, uttered some of the

foulest oaths that ever passed a trooper's lips in Portugal. Retracing his steps he repaired to the republican authorities and said: "I recognize the new *régime,* and will prove a loyal citizen. But I cannot offer my military services to the republic, so tender my resignation herewith." That was practically the end.

On Wednesday morning the 5th Chasseurs surrendered, and were followed by the Municipal Guards. The republic was proclaimed at the town hall, and the revolution was an accomplished fact. The total number of dead was found to be hardly more than one hundred, for although the firing was described as heavy and destructive, Providence proved merciful to the combatants. Later on the victors showed themselves on the whole very indulgent to the vanquished, and if we except the treatment of the monks and nuns, excesses were exceedingly rare. It seems to be an established fact that during this period of intense political excitement vulgar crimes against life and property have fallen far below the average.

The republic is proclaimed.

The new Republican Government has now a formidable problem to cope with. It is less a work of reform than of creation out of nothing that they must endeavor to achieve. And the number of persons qualified for this arduous task is very much less than that of the men who were able and willing to lend a hand in pulling down the rotten old fabric of

the monarchy. But the best men have remained in the background. By far the most serious, capable, and versatile politicians are those of the *A Lucta* group. And chief among these is Dr. Brito Camacho, whom I have known and appreciated as physician, journalist, and politician. So long as the country possesses men of the moral and mental calibre of Brito Camacho, and of the brilliancy of Joao de Menezes, and makes the most of their services, Republican Portugal can look into the future with serenity.

Republican Portugal.

KING MANUEL IN EXILE

(A.D. 1910)

PHILIP GIBBS

DOM MANUEL, once King of Portugal, in fact still King in name, has gone as an exile to Wood Norton in Worcestershire. I saw him arrive at Evesham Station, which is two and a half miles down a long leafy road from the great iron and gilt gates which shut out the English countryside from that rambling old house of many gables —from a house of dreams, filled with the ghosts of old grandeur and with memories of fallen thrones.

Manuel arrives in England.

It was a strange little dream, not without pathos and sentiment, in that Worcestershire railway station. As I stood there in the darkness, where a little crowd of country people had gathered, kept back by the burly figures of a few local policemen, I thought of another day and of another station, when I had waited for the arrival of this boy. Then it was draped in flags, a guard of honor was on the platform, with a military band ready to play the Portuguese National Anthem. A squadron of cavalry, with glittering breastplates and white plumes tossing as they rode,

came streaming into the station-yard. On the platform were many great officers. Presently trumpets rang out, their notes crashing under the glass roof. King Edward came driving in his state carriage to meet his "Royal brother." A moment later the music of a brisk march was played, there was a shout of command, a rattle of rifles as the guard of honor presented arms, and a slim, smiling, dark-eyed boy in a blue uniform with a white plumed hat kissed King Edward on both cheeks and by the King was kissed again. That was only a year ago, less one month, and now again I was waiting for that slim boy at an English station. But the year had made a difference! King Edward was no longer here to greet him. I had seen the boy again standing very stiff and straight in St. George's Chapel before the coffin of the King who had kissed him his first greeting on English soil. And now he was coming as a fugitive from his own kingdom, from a palace broken by bombardment, from a people careless of his fate.

Life's contrasts.

It was a curious contrast of life. The drama of it gripped me as I waited in the darkness of a Worcestershire night. There was no guard of honor here. Only a few yawning porters stood by the booking-office. Outside a group of country girls giggled and squealed as the policeman kept them back. Around there were the absolute silence, the intense

blackness of midnight meadows in the heart of the woodlands. Presently three white motor-cars came plunging into the station-yard and their head-lamps glared like prodigious eyeballs in the darkness. Then a few minutes later a special train crept very quietly into the station, a number of dark figures alighted and surrounded the door of a saloon carriage. One man, tall and elegant, with square shoulders and a tight waist, gave his hand to a lady and led her forward. On the other side was a young man—hardly more than a boy—in a heavy overcoat and a soft felt hat. The light of a station lamp fell full on his face. It had a deathly pallor, and as he glanced first this way and that, I saw his dark, sad eyes and under his eyes dark shadows. I shall not soon forget the tragic sorrow of that boy's face, in whom I recognized Dom Manuel of Portugal. The lady by his side was his mother, Queen Amelia, the tall, elegant man her brother and host, the Duc d'Orléans, with whom I had spoken in his house at Wood Norton, a few days before. Behind them came a few Portuguese gentlemen, and as the little procession passed out into the station-yard, the country girls cheered in shrill voices, a few men waved their hats, and one deep voice shouted *"Viva el Rey!"* This was the greeting of Dom Manuel to his English exile. It brought no smile to his face. With a tired gesture he lifted his hat for a moment as he

Mother and son.

took his seat by the side of the Duke, who grasped the steering-wheel of the foremost car, while the chauffeur, with a trumpet in his hand—the Duke drives with the heralding blasts of a coach-horn—sat on the step at the young King's feet. In the second car Queen Amelia peered through the windows at the little crowd, but Dom Manuel did not look to right or left, but stared straight ahead into the darkness of his road to exile. The cars bounded forward, swept swiftly into a sleeping town, and then with the headlights giving a passing pale radiance to the tall trees, went up the long road to Wood Norton. The great gates, surmounted with the Crown of France and emblazoned with golden lilies, were flung wide open. From the rambling red house, with its great chimney-stacks, shafts of yellow light cut into the darkness. The door was opened, and powdered flunkeys bowed low as the cars stopped, and as the travellers passed up the steps. Then the door was shut, hiding a little scene of tears when an old lady, who is the Comtesse de Paris, welcomed her daughter and her grandson to their exile. In less than twenty minutes the lights glimmering through the windows were turned out and black night took possession of the house where an uncrowned king laid himself down to sleep and dream.

The House at Wood Norton.

For Wood Norton is a house of dreams. It is a little foreign world of unreality. It is

a Palace of Make-Believe. It is haunted by old ghosts. A King lives here who has another King for his guest. People with great titles surround the master of the house and call him "Monseigneur," bowing low. The servants, who speak a foreign language, dress on state occasions in the gorgeous livery of the *ancien régime* in France. For this is the Court of a King and here in the heart of the Worcestershire woodland and within the great gilded gates, one may find, if one has the password (and it is difficult to get) the ceremony and state of a Royal house. Yet the King who is the master of the house is not a real King. Philippe d'Orléans, in whose veins runs the blood of the Bourbons, of Henri IV., of Saint-Louis, is only a dream-king. His people ignore him. His kingdom is ruled by business gentlemen in black coats. He is a *roi fainéant*. And the people with great names who come here to do him homage have no legal right to their titles. A Republic, where every man is "monsieur," does not admit their patents of nobility. Like little children who say, "Let us pretend," they play the game of Royalty, which has no reality. The master of the house plays the game elaborately. Over his gates he has put the Crown and the Lilies. They are on his front door. In this English homestead one cannot knock one's elbow or bark one's shin without hitting the Lilies of France. They are on every panel of every

The Kingdom of Make-Believe.

room. They are on the teacups and the china. They are on the lightning conductors and the weather-vane. I found them even on the mud-scraper at the back door. They are a constant reminder that in this red house in the heart of Worcestershire dwells, not an English squire, nor a gentleman farmer, but a man who, by Blood Royal, should be King of France.

On the walls are portraits of the Bourbons, the heirs to the glory and grandeur of France, robbed of their heritage. The walls are hung also with old tapestries recalling heroic episodes in the history of Royal France. Old furniture with its upholstery a little frayed, its gilt a little worn, stands in these *salons,* framed in oak, carved with the Fleur-de-Lys, as reminders of those days when at Versailles and the Tuileries the Bourbons held their splendid Courts. Yet all these things are but the stage properties of the Kingdom of Make-Believe—a house of dreams where men pull the curtains against the waking world.

Another dream-king.

Now to that house of dreams has gone another king, a poor, pitiable little figure, broken in spirit and in pride. He, too, is only a dream-king, and hugs to himself those thin, vague fantasies called memory and hope, while the living world tramples on outside, ruthlessly, brutally, sturdily—tramples on the lilies and crushes the crown under the heel, and the Royal flag into the mud. The

leaves of the Worcestershire woodland grow red and rotten and drop from their branches. The white mists roll up from the Avon below the garden wall. The faint pungent odor of decay breathes into one's senses, and the sadness of autumn steals around this house of dreams, where a white-faced boy weeps in secret and struggles with the despair that grips his heart.

Romance of this red house.

There is romance here in this red house with the many gables, and the iron gates shut in a tragedy.

SOLAR MOTORS

(A.D. 1910)

ARCHIBALD WILLIAMS

ONE day George Stephenson and a friend stood watching a train drawn by one of his locomotives.

"What moves that train?" asked Stephenson.

"The engine," replied his friend.

"And what moves the engine?"

"The steam."

"And what produces the steam?"

"Coal."

"And what produces coal?"

This last query nonplussed his friend, and Stephenson himself replied, "The Sun."

Bottled sunshine.

The "bottled sunshine" that drove the locomotive was stored up millions of years ago in the dense forests then covering the face of the globe.

Every day vegetation was built by the sunbeams, and in the course of ages this growth was crushed into fossil form by the pressure of high-piled rock and *débris*. To-day we cast "black diamonds" into our grates and furnaces, to call out the warmth and power that is a legacy from a period long

prior to the advent of fire-loving man, often forgetful of its real source.

We see the influence of the sun more directly in the motions of wind and water. Had not the sun's action deposited snow and rain on the uplands of the world, there would be no roaring waterfall, no rushing torrent, no smooth-flowing stream. But for the sun heating the atmosphere unequally, there would not be that rushing of cool air to replace hot which we know as wind.

We press Sol into our service when we burn fuel; our windmills and water-mills make him our slave. Of late years many prophets have arisen to warn us that we must not be too lavish of our coal; that the time is not so far distant, reckoning by centuries, when the coal seams of the world will be worked out and leave our descendants destitute of what plays so important a part in modern life. Now, though waste is unpardonable, and the care for posterity praiseworthy, there really seems to be no good reason why we should alarm ourselves about the welfare of the people of the far future. Even if coal fails the winds and the rivers will be there, and the huge unharnessed energy of the tides, and the sun himself is ready to answer appeals for help, if rightly shaped. He does not demand the prayers of Persian fire-worshippers, but rather the scientific gathering of his good gifts.

Substitutes for coal.

Place your hand on a roof lying square to the summer sun, and you will find it too hot for the torch. Concentrate a beam of sunshine through a small burning-glass. How fierce is the small glowing focal spot that makes us draw our hands suddenly away! Suppose now a large glass many feet across binding several square yards of sun's rays to a point, and at that point a boiler. The boiler would develop steam, and the steam might be led into cylinders and forced to drudge for us.

Energy of the sun.

Do many of us realize the enormous energy of a hot summer's day? The heat falling in the tropics on a single square foot of the earth's surface has been estimated as the equivalent of one-third of a horse-power. The force of Niagara itself would on this basis be matched by the sunshine streaming on to a square mile or so. A steamship might be propelled by the heat that scorches its decks.

For many centuries inventors have tried to utilize this huge waste power. We all know how, according to the story, Archimedes burnt up the Roman ships besieging his native town, Syracuse, by concentrating on them the sun heat cast from hundreds of mirrors. This story is less probable than interesting as a proof that the ancients were aware of the sun's power. The first genuine solar machine was the work of Ericsson, the builder of the *Monitor*. He focused sun heat on a boiler, which gave the equivalent of one horse-power

for every hundred square feet of mirrors employed. This was not what engineers would call a "high efficiency," a great deal of heat being wasted, but it led the way to further improvements.

In America, especially in the dry, arid regions, where fuel is scarce and the sun shines pitilessly day after day, all the year round, sun-catchers of various types have been erected and worked successfully. Dr. William Calver, of Washington, has built in the barren wastes of Arizona huge frames of mirrors, travelling on circular rails, so that they may be brought to face the sun at all hours between sunrise and sunset. Doctor Calver employs no less than 1,600 mirrors. As each of these mirrors develops 10-15 degrees of heat, it is obvious, after an appeal to simple arithmetic, that the united efforts of these reflectors should produce the tremendous temperature 16,000-24,000 degrees, which, expressed comparatively, means the paltry 90 degrees in the shade, beneath which we grow restive, multiplied hundreds of times. Hitherto the greatest known heat had been that of the arc of the electric lamp, in which the incandescent particles between pole and pole attain 6,000 degrees Fahrenheit. Sun-catchers.

The combined effect of the burning mirrors is irresistible. They can, we are told, in a few moments, reduce Russian iron to the consistency of warmed wax, though it marks the Heat of the mirrors.

heat of many blast-furnaces. They will bake bricks twenty times as rapidly as any kiln, and the bricks produced are not the friable blocks which a mason chips easily with his trowel, but bodies so hard as to scratch case-hardened steel.

California sun-motors.

There are at work in California sun-motors of another design. The reader must imagine a huge conical lamp shade turned over on to its smaller end, its inner surface lined with nearly 1,800 mirrors, two feet long and three inches broad, the whole supported on a light iron framework, and he will have a good idea of the apparatus used on the Pasadena ostrich farm. The machine is arranged in meridian, that is, at right angles to the path of the sun, which it follows all day long by the agency of clockwork. In the focus of the mirrors is a boiler, 13 feet 6 inches long, coated with black, heat-absorbing substances. This boiler holds over 100 gallons of water, and being fed automatically will raise steam untended all the day through. The steam is led by pipes to an engine working a pump capable of delivering 1,400 gallons per minute.

The cheapness of the apparatus in proportion to its utility is so marked that, in regions where sunshine is almost perpetual, the solar motor will in time become as common as are windmills and factory chimneys elsewhere. If the heat falling on a few square yards of mirror lifts nearly 100,000 gallons of water

an hour, there is indeed hope for the Sahara, the Persian Desert, Arabia, Mongolia, Mexico, Australia. That is to say, if the water under the earth be in these parts as plentiful as the sunshine above it. The effect of water on the most unpromising soil is marvellous. Already in Algeria the French have reclaimed thousands of square miles by scientific irrigation. In Australia huge artesian wells have made habitable for man and beast millions of acres that were before desert.

Scientific irrigation.

It is only a just retribution that the sun should he harnessed and compelled to draw water for tracts to which he has so long denied it. The sun-motor is only just entering on its useful career, and at present we can but dream of the great effects it may have on future civilization. Yet its principle is so simple, so scientific, and so obvious that it is easy to imagine it at no far distant date a dangerous rival to King Coal himself. To quarry coal from the bowels of the earth and transform it into heat, is to traverse two sides of a triangle, the third being to use the sunshine of the passing hour.

[Consecration of St. Patrick's Cathedral, New York. Walter Wellman and his airship crew picked up 375 miles off Cape Hatteras. International Aviation meet at Belmont Park, L. I. Revolution in Uruguay. Moissant wins $10,000 prize for flight around

the Statue of Liberty. Imperial Chinese Parliament summoned in Peking. Mexican rioters attempt to assassinate the American ambassador. Remains of the Austrian scientific exploration ship *Albatross* (lost 14 years) found in Solomon Islands. Two human skeletons of the Stone Age discovered at Astwick, England. Richest Radium deposits in the world discovered in the Porcupine District, Canada. President Taft visits Cuba. British Premier Asquith mobbed by suffragettes. Militant suffragettes attempt to force an entry into the House of Commons (119 arrests). Suffragettes create a disturbance in Downing Street, mob Asquith and assault Birrell.]

Militant suffragettes.

THE SUFFRAGETTE MOVEMENT

(A.D. 1910)

ETHEL B. HARRISON

IT IS not often realized for how short a time this movement has been at work. Forty years back from 1905, or forty-four years from to-day, will cover its operations. That seems a long time to the women who have worked for this particular end, though in truth it is but as yesterday in the history of political changes. How many years, how many centuries, has it taken men to win political freedom, while the suffrage question, as at present understood, dates from about the time of the French Revolution. That women were not asking for a simple extension of the suffrage such as we have seen in successive Reform Bills, but that they were asking for a revolutionary recast of society of a kind new to historical experience, does not seem to have occurred to them, nor that such a change must inevitably take very many years to bring about. They had first to convert women, then to convert men. Have they persuaded the majority of the women of this country that votes are essential to their freedom and progress? Have they converted men?

Age of the Suffragette movement.

The Feminist movement

In 1905 the Feminist movement stood with considerable achievements behind it. The older suffragists had realized that before any real progress could be made women must have an education, and the middle-class woman had no education worthy of the name. It is not too much to say that the movement which gave us high schools for girls and built and endowed colleges for women was initiated and guided by women who desired the vote. The establishment of high schools was a great boon to a large class of women, who found it impossible to get an adequate education for their daughters owing to the cost of good girls' schools and the still greater cost of private teaching at home, while the Utopia of colleges for women was but a dream. It is not to be supposed that all the women who worked for these great schemes were suffragists; it may be claimed that the pioneers and leaders belonged to that movement. It was a great work, and women may be grateful for what was then given to them, though we may wish that the lines of education then laid down had not been such a bald imitation of the well-worn methods of boys' day schools, and that it had been possible to avoid stimulation of the craze for athletics and rivalries with other schools for game averages. The high school is apt to fail in giving the foundations of a true culture, just as the manners of the pupils are too often selfish, rough, and crude. We

fear that the high-school girl is often anything but a comfort and help to her mother at home. In this respect we may count loss, not gain.

The opportunities thrown open to women in college life have been nobly responded to by them, for they have shown that they can reach the highest academic honors. Women's college education has had great results in providing the country with admirable tutors, teachers, and professional women. It has been said that the colleges have become too technical in this sense, and that they have not appealed to the large majority of women. George Eliot's view on this matter is interesting: Advantage of college education.

"The danger she was alive to in the system of collegiate education was the possible weakening of the bonds of family affection and family duties. In her view the family life holds the roots of all that is best in our mortal lot; and she always felt that it is far too ruthlessly sacrificed in the case of English *men* by their public school and university education, and that much more is such a result to be deprecated in the case of *women*."*

The effect of this improved education was almost immediately apparent. Women began to be ashamed of amateur, careless work; the average of all women's work was raised; women felt themselves able to take up and Average of woman's work raised.

*"Life of George Eliot," by J. W. Cross, vol. iii. pp. 428, 429.

carry through onerous duties, as educational, poor-law, and sanitary inspectors, and in many other directions. Their work was valuable for the special womanly qualities they brought to it—the feminine gifts of quick sympathy, intuition, and attention to details. None can doubt that the community has gained by their labors—and this, again, must be credited indirectly to the efforts of the older suffragists—though the need to find employment, and to qualify for employment was an important factor in the situation. A Mrs. Browning, a George Eliot, a Mme. Curie, a Mrs. Creighton, a Mrs. Sidney Webb, owed their development to other sources.

The Feminist party, then, in 1905, stood, as I have said, with solid achievements behind them. They had tried on several occasions for the parliamentary vote, and had almost won it, but at the last moment the insincerity and half-heartedness of their reputed friends lost them their victory, as they supposed. In spite of repeated failure, they commanded respect for the courage, pertinacity, ability, and level-headedness they had shown, and this from all political parties, even those who entirely disapproved of their campaign. The militants at that time were few, free-lances who helped to make the situation more lively, but who were a negligible quantity. The chances of ultimate success for the cause had never seemed so good.

The militants.

What is the situation to-day? It is a question whether the militants do not now exceed in number the constitutional women—conversions of late seem to have been rather to that side. The money bags are certainly on the side of the militants, who spend lavishly on street pageants and sensational advertisements. We hear that the public meetings of both sections are thinly attended unless there is some unwonted attraction; certainly there is less serious effort to convert and instruct the general public. To annoy and obstruct is not to convince or to inform.

Constitutional women.

We venture to think that the constitutional women made a great blunder in not dissociating themselves in early days from a policy that was at once immoral and unwise. If we are asked to point to a time when remonstrance would have come with excellent effect, we would recall the incident when a young working girl was brought up from her home in a distant county and incited to behave publicly in a way which brought her under legal penalties. The girl was very young, much distressed at her position; her parents were indignant, and the magistrate spoke his mind. Surely a party which exists to proclaim the rights of women to fair play and justice (*sic*) should begin by themselves showing that better way. We think that had the older suffragists dissociated themselves openly from that unwarrantable action much that has

happened since would not have happened. Working women have not forgotten, nor are they likely to forget, this little incident. We doubt not that militant methods have long caused anxiety and regret to the constitutional women; we fully realize that it was difficult and almost painful to separate from those who avowed themselves workers for the cause; but *noblesse oblige.*

Those who make revolutions resorting to violence, themselves appeal to force and forfeit all right to complain. The revolutionist must be ready to pay the penalty willingly and cheerfully. It is not for him to choose his punishment when he breaks the law or to decide upon the more or the less. The ethics of martyrdom have yet to be written, but it seems clear that a martyrdom which is deliberately courted and artificially planned beforehand is no martyrdom at all. In the early Church it was found necessary to forbid catechumens to seek martyrdom; and we do well to remember that "smarting from the Roman rods" was a very different punishment from modern imprisonment in the second class. We can hardly imagine what the Roman penalty would have been for slapping a centurion's face!

Artificial martyrdom.

But when we have said this we admit freely that much courage, determination, and persistence have been shown. Would that it had been in a better cause, and that we could wipe

out the injurious effect this campaign has had upon the future of women! The point of hysterical emotion and unreason is always nearer with women than with men, nor is it discreditable to women that it should be so. Their nerve force is slighter, their self-restraint less. History shows us many waves of public emotion in which women have been swept off their feet. But though, with the Poet, we may indulge thoughts not unkindly towards the Jump-to-Glory Janes of the world, we must, in the interests of women themselves and of the community, beware lest we in any way encourage their suicidal action.

The grievances.

It may be well to try to understand something of the grievances from which the militants believe that they suffer.

1. They believe that women are exploited by men.

Exploitation.

In a sense that is true, but have not men been exploited by men? Are they not still so exploited? Was there ever a worse case of exploitation than the industrial conditions under which little children were brought up from workhouses to toil in mines and factories at the beginning of the nineteenth century? Women have not escaped exploitation, but they have not been so treated because they are women. If they have suffered more it is that they are weaker in bodily health and strength, that their work is as a rule not so valuable as the work of men, that they enter the industrial

field with an eye always on matrimony to escape from work. The horrible chaos into which modern industry has fallen has affected all workers alike: it is the great European problem before all the countries of the West. The case of the unhappy widow left alone with young children who has to return to daily toil after years spent in her own home, and can only find employment at the lowest form of industry and at the lowest wage, is perhaps the most pitiful. We have heartily welcomed old-age pensions, but we have sometimes thought it would have been better to begin by giving pensions to all widows with young children, and to all women of sixty. It would have been a public acknowledgment of the debt the country owes to wives and mothers. But we consider it grossly unjust to suggest that men have sought of deliberate purpose to exploit women.

Unjust laws.

2. They consider that the law is unfair and unjust to women.

Now that, by the Women's Charter of 1882, women have entire control of their own property, to use and to leave behind them, that special question is disposed of. Any readjustment of the law would probably level up woman's responsibilities to man's, as in the case of breach of promise damages, liability for children's expenses, liability to contribute to husband's support, cruelty to husband, slander of husband, liability for penalty in

libel cases, liability for expenses of divorce actions, and in many other cases. Any impartial person must agree that the law leans on the side of indulgence to women—as to punishments inflicted on them, as to liabilities incurred by them, as to the general weight of responsibility, which is laid on a man rather than the woman.*

3. They consider it a slight and a degradation not to have the vote.

Two phrases often used express this feeling: that women are reduced to the level of "paupers, criminals, and lunatics," and that they have a "lower political status than Maoris and Kaffirs." We reply that they are reduced to the level of peers, members of the Royal Family, nearly all soldiers and sailors, and many other admirable men. If women in truth held so degraded a position, it is surprising to find them capable of the achievements we rehearsed at the beginning of this paper. Does the vote give value to the individual, or the individual to the vote? In any case the vote is not a right but a public trust, and the State has something to say as to the advisability of conferring it. It is strange that at a time when votes are depreciated by men some women should passionately desire

The question of the vote.

*"The Women's Charter," by Lady McLaren, is a serious attempt to deal with a large series of questions. I do not attempt to consider it in these few pages. If the need for these reforms can be proved, there would be no need of the vote to obtain them.

them. It is also strange that the important municipal vote which has been granted them is disdained and neglected by them. Municipal elections in London and other great centres may attract a few women voters, but what is the case in the country-side?

4. They believe that the many-headed hydra of intemperance and immorality will be overthrown and slain if women get the vote.

Spiritual weapons needed.

They forget that neither sex is free of offence; that it needs spiritual weapons to slay spiritual foes. Spermaceti will not heal an inward wound. Mrs. Carrie Nation's crusade with hatchets has had little effect upon the trade of the wine-shops, but the teaching of the medical profession is producing an immense reform. The exalted temper of the militant women would inevitably lead to many unconsidered and unwise crusades. Divorce will doubtless be made as easy as in America; sin of a certain kind will become crime and flood the law courts; while, as we already see, sexual questions will be constantly under discussion. It is an unlovely picture. In these matters we need scientific knowledge and advice, religious discipline, and the fervor of a finer ideal of life and human nature. Little of any value can come through the ballot-box or debates in Parliament, but we may look in the future to the legitimate action of the best and wisest women

called in to the counsels of the Government for advice and co-operation.

We have tried to state accurately what we believe to be the chief grievances of the militant women, and to give in briefest form an answer. How does the political situation stand to-day? Four years ago the suffragists' demand was a simple one: "Votes for women as for men." The Liberals have refused it. A new women's suffrage society has started on the basis of adult suffrage—a Bill for adult suffrage has been before Parliament. Some Socialists would support such a measure, others would only support manhood suffrage. The Unionist women's society still supports the vote "as for men"; like the ostrich, they bury their heads and refuse to see adult suffrage stealing quickly upon them.

Meantime the mass of women are stolidly indifferent; "A plague on all your houses" they say, and the more thoughtful resent the attitude of politicians by which the woman's vote is considered only as a pawn in the political game, without reference as to whether the majority of women desire it or are fit to use it, or whether such a measure would be for the good of the community. Most Liberals, we imagine, would support manhood suffrage, but a torrential flood of new inexperienced women voters could not be let loose upon the country by any responsible politician of any

Indifference of many women.

school, for it would give to women the casting vote.

Madero becomes President of Mexico.

[Madero proclaims himself provisional President of Mexico. Crippen hanged in London. Samuel Gompers reelected President of American Federation of Labor. Mexicans fight bloody battle at Cerro Priesto, Chihuahua. Andrew Carnegie gives $10,000,000 for promotion of peace.]

PEACE ON EARTH

(A.D. 1911)

HAROLD SPENDER

PRESIDENT TAFT, in March, 1910, thus stated his position in regard to the International Arbitration Court: President Taft's offer.

"Personally, I do not see any reason why matters of national honor should not be referred to Courts of Arbitration as matters of private or national property are. I know that is going further than most men are willing to go, but I do not see why questions of honor should not be submitted to tribunals composed of men of honor who understand questions of national honor, to abide by their decisions as well as in other questions of difference arising between nations."

In December, 1910, the President again defined his attitude towards Arbitration:

"If we can negotiate and put through private agreements with some other nation to abide by the adjudication of International Arbitration Courts in every issue which cannot be settled by negotiations, no matter what it involves, whether honor, territory, or money, we shall have made a long step forward by demonstrating that it is possible for

two nations at least to establish between them the same system which, through the process of law, has existed between individuals under Government."

Sir Edward Grey's reply.

The summary of Sir Edward Grey's reply of March 13, 1911, is as follows:

"When agreement of that kind, so sweeping as it is, is proposed to us, we shall be delighted to have such a proposal."

The event of the month has been, without doubt, Sir Edward Grey's great reply to Mr. Taft's great overture. This is one of those strokes which, if they succeed, make a new world. Like all great strokes, it seems very simple when once struck. Only those who know the doubts and hesitations of Foreign Offices can realize how big this policy is. Only those who know that atmosphere can realize how difficult it will be to carry it through.

For the moment the world is lost in an admiration which is not without a touch of perplexity. Sir Edward Grey has not prepared us for so great a move. He has been a good Foreign Minister, because he has been a safe Foreign Minister. He has kept the peace at a time when peace has been most important for the world. He can say, after Napoleon III., but with far more sincerity—"the British Empire is Peace." For he has kept the British Empire free from that spirit of arrogance and aggression which, ten years ago, nearly

led to a combination of the whole civilized world against her.

He has kept the peace, and it is, therefore, in the proper development of things that he should become, side by side with Mr. Taft, the pioneer of peace before the world. The whole British Progressive Party welcome him in this new *rôle* and promise him their best support in carrying it to success. For Sir Edward Grey has made no enemies. The feelings of the strongest critics on his own side have never gone further than the feelings of friends who were disappointed because his achievements had fallen short of their hopes. They rejoice now to see Mr. Gladstone's chosen apprentice rising to the heights of his great master.

Pioneers of peace.

Sir Edward Grey's proposal has had the rare power of at once affecting the situation both at home and abroad. Abroad it has arrested the attention of the whole world, now half-bewildered and half-fascinated by its novelty and daring. Some nations are suspicious; others are jealous; others are still blinking in the sudden radiance of a new ideal. Europe is too far broken to militarism to believe in release from her servitude; but she stirs uneasily within her iron cage. It is in the New World—in the United States and Canada—that the hope of support in this crusade lies. It is there that the challenge finds an echo, and the belief in peace, still a

Interest aroused throughout the world.

vital power, comes to grips with the invading menace of the war-spirit.

At home the speech came in the nick of time to ease a very awkward and difficult political situation. Throughout the months of February and early March the supporters of the Government were suffering from a vague unrest. The rumor of a coming increase in the Estimates had gone forth; and it was received with a sudden, passionate, outbreak of impatience. It was not for this that the Progressive Parties had won a second laborious victory in one year. It was not for this that they had toiled day and night to carry through the great Budget of 1909—not merely to provide fresh food for the insatiable maw of the War-god. They saw ahead of them an Exchequer tied to the War Office and the Admiralty, the failure of the social reform policy, the increase of Imperialism abroad, the decline and division of the Progressive movement at home. The official apologists threw all the blame on Germany, but those apologies were gravely weakened by the revelation that in 1909 Germany had been right in her rejected explanations of the notorious acceleration of ships, and Great Britain had been wrong in her attitude of rejection. For the moment, at any rate, Germany seemed to be in the right, and the Admiralty to be saddled with the blame. So strong and deep was this feeling, that it seemed probable that

The increase of Imperialism.

the Government would be saved from defeat in the division lobbies only by Tory support.

It was at this moment that Sir Edward Grey opened a new vision which seemed to reduce all these quarrels to their proper place in the picture. The cynics called it a debating triumph; but it is the special excellence of Parliamentary government that a move be at once a debating triumph and a great international event. The difficulty of the Government in this case represented a real clash of great forces, and the speech of Sir Edward Grey represented a victory for the forces that make for peace. Into the midst of a squabble between those who would build four Dreadnoughts—the Radical policy—those who would build five—the Government policy—and those who would build six—the Tory policy—came a proposal which might, in the end, reduce Dreadnoughts altogether to the vanishing point.

Strength of the American Fleet.

When we reflect that the American Fleet is now the third and almost the second in the world—when we remember that a combination of the British and American Fleets would inevitably lock up the German Fleet in the North Sea—when we recall the fact that an aggressive alliance between England and the United States would be the most serious conceivable peril to the trade of Europe, and was always the one danger that played on the iron nerve of Napoleon—then we shall realize the

German feeling.

very remarkable change in the German attitude towards this country as expressed in this reception of Sir Edward Grey's speech. Perhaps it is not unfair to say that some of the more suspicious spirits see in England's new move a drift away from the French understanding—a point of view reflected in the fears and jealousies of the French Press. Perhaps the German mind feels itself here in the presence of something it does not understand, a sentiment against which all its teaching of the last thirty years has been directed, and yet a sentiment uttered by a man who has never been a sentimentalist. Suppose that the ideal were to become real? Suppose that the gospel of the material proved untrue? That "Blood and Iron" were out of date? Those are always the fears which haunt even the most confident disciples of materialism. What if the enthusiasts are after all right?

But why should we not accept the simple explanation which seems to emerge from the speeches of German Ministers — that Germany, like ourselves, is tired of the wrangles of the last few years, and anxious to come to an understanding with this country?

Putting aside all glosses on the text, what is it that President Taft and Sir Edward Grey actually propose? Let us be clear on that point. For there is nothing new about arbitration treaties. Mr. Balfour had a perfect right to point out that the policy of arbitration

treaties had been consistently pursued by his Government, not merely because Lord Salisbury was really a lover of peace, but also because he happened to hold office during the earlier days of this great movement. The first great impetus to arbitration treaties was given by The Hague Conference of 1899. An attempt was made at that Conference to bind together the majority of the conferring States with the tie of compulsory arbitration. That effort was not successful. But an article was inserted in the convention of that Conference recommending the various States to contract between one another special treaties of arbitration.

The Hague Conference of 1899.

France and Great Britain were the first to carry out the provisions of that article when they signed the Arbitration Agreement of 1903. Their example has since been followed by practically all the Powers, both great and little. Over 130 arbitration agreements have been signed between the Powers since 1899, and nearly twenty of them have been renewed since they were first signed. Sixty of these treaties were made before the second Hague Conference in 1907, and under the stimulus of that Conference seventy have been signed since.

Now, these agreements have almost always followed the same model. The governing clauses have referred to The Hague Tribunal all differences "of a legal nature or relative

to the interpretation of treaties," but this enactment has always been followed by a provision of great importance, as follows:

An important provision.

"Provided nevertheless that they do not affect the vital interests, the independence, or the honor of the high contracting parties, and do not concern the interests of other Powers."

Words which, it is clear, could be made to cover almost every case of international difference. Out of all these treaties only two have omitted these words, and those have been treaties between Denmark and the Netherlands in 1904, and Denmark and Italy in 1905.

Now the proposal placed before the International Arbitration Leagues by Mr. Taft last November, was that two of the great Powers should follow where little Denmark has led —though it may be observed that little Denmark has not received the tribute of a mention in the course of this affair. Mr. Taft's address has since been published, and it is a very remarkable document. Among other sentiments set forth is that the United States would refuse to have a great army, even if such a refusal exposed her to the risk of invasion. She would prefer that risk to the centainty of the evil that would come to her from possessing a great army. But the governing sentence in the speech is this:

"I do not see why questions of honor may not be submitted to a tribunal composed of men of honor."

Mr. Taft's proposal was that all differences between States, whether of honor, territory, or money, should be submitted to arbitration under treaty. It was quite clear from the deliberate manner in which he threw out this suggestion that he was inviting a reply. It is to this speech that Sir Edward Grey has replied, and it is this extension of the arbitration doctrine which is now the proposal before the world. It is a proposal which was practically before both Hague Conferences, but relegated to the future. But if Britain and the United States led the way, then we might see the next Conference make a serious movement towards its extension to all the Powers. That is one of the possibilities which make this event of such supreme moment.

Importance of the movement.

But lest we should be too sanguine, we must remember that the United States is, owing to her Constitution, not entirely master of her own fate in the matter of foreign treaties. Like ourselves the United States has a Second Chamber, and, like ourselves, the United States has her troubles with that Second Chamber. In this matter of foreign treaties she is almost worse off than we are, for it was a quaint and curious provision of those very cautious men, the founders of the American Constitution, that all foreign treaties should have to pass through the Senate by a two-thirds majority. We have recently witnessed

Power of the American Senate.

Difficulty in securing a two-thirds majority.

Mr. Taft's difficulties in his attempts to secure the approval of the Senate for his Reciprocity Agreement. A two-thirds majority, as every student of politics well knows, is very difficult to achieve. It is a very strong barrier against change.

Unhappily, it is not superfluous to remind ourselves of this fact at the present moment. For we have to remember that we have gone through all these emotions before, only to meet with defeat and rebuff at the hands of this American Senate. In 1897 Lord Salisbury and Mr. Olney drew up, with the help of Lord Pauncefote, an Arbitration Treaty between Great Britain and the United States, which was practically the same proposal as is now being made by Mr. Taft and Sir Edward Grey.

This treaty was received with high hopes on both sides of the Atlantic; but what happened? The Senate took the treaty in hand, and, quite after the fashion of our House of Lords, they inserted amendments which practically nullified all its governing provisions. Their principal amendment was a provision that each subject of arbitration should be approved by the Senate before being sent to the arbitral tribunal, a provision which would have left the law very much where it stands now. Great Britain refused to accept that amendment. On May 5, 1897, the Senate refused to ratify the treaty as agreed between

the Powers, and from that time to this nothing more has been heard of it.

Now, it is no secret that this decision of the Senate, which was arrived at by an overwhelming majority, was largely influenced by the Irish vote, a very powerful factor in the Senatorial Elections. The Irish-Americans took the view that the treaty was proposed by a British Government which strenuously opposed the grant of Home Rule to Ireland. They determined that the United States should not be bound by such close bonds to a country which was resolved to refuse the chief aspiration of the Irish race. In 1911, indeed, we have a different situation. The American people will have to deal with a Government which has staked its existence on the grant of Home Rule. It is possible that that fact may make a great difference in the attitude of the Senate. Mr. John Redmond has urged, with statesmanlike perception, that these two great changes may help one another. Ireland will be more friendly to England because she has entered into closer ties with the United States, and the United States will be more inclined to enter into those ties with England because she is giving justice to Ireland. Let us hope that this great and generous forecast will be fulfilled.

View of the Irish-Americans.

There are great elements of hope. By a singular and happy coincidence, the arbitration idea comes in the nick of time to help the

Reciprocity Agreement. It will remove from the Canadian mind the one fear which creates any doubt as to the safety of the Agreement—the fear of annexation.

A Government that could bring us even nearer to such results would have left a great mark on the history of mankind. The victory over a faded and obstructive aristocracy, necessary and urgent as that victory is, in order to clear the way for social reconstruction at home, would fall into its place as part of the larger whole. Such an achievement would be a mighty blow to all those tremendous and growing forces in the world whose sport and whose profit is war, the classes who live on and by war and wish to keep the peoples chained to its chariot. Those forces are becoming more and more formidable. They threaten the world with colossal disasters. It has become the duty of all who care for the race to resist them.

Civilization or barbarism?

For the issue is great. Civilization or barbarism—that is the least important aspect of this matter. A bright future for this Western world, or a sudden irretrievable downfall in blood and fire—a fair field for our new machinery, and our new discoveries in the abatement of toil and suffering—an opportunity for carrying on the fight against poverty to possible success, for perfecting our new organization of law and industry, still in its first infancy—shall we have this, or a sudden

smash-up, greater and more sudden than that which befell the Roman Empire? That, and nothing less, seems the choice before us. Surely of this we may say, in Carlyle's favorite lines:

> Choose well, your choice is
> Brief, and yet endless.

Some will say that we are pursuing a vain shadow. The ideal is so far off. Man has always loved war and always will. It is the way he advances—by mutual slaughter. He is a fighting animal, the worst of the fighting animals, for he is the only animal who wages systematic war against his own fellows. These will say with the old man in that poem of Tennyson's earlier and more hopeful period, "The Golden Year":

Man a fighting animal.

"The Golden Year."

> Ah, folly! For it lies so far away,
> Not in our time, nor in our children's time;
> 'Tis like the second world to us that live:
> 'Twere all as one to fix our hopes on Heaven,
> As on this vision of the Golden Year.

To which we will make the speaker's own reply to his own craven fears:

> But well I know—
> That unto him who works, and feels he works,
> This same grand year is ever at the doors.

[Battleship *Arkansas* of the U. S. Navy, launched. California Senate adopts a woman suffrage constitutional amendment. Earth-

quake in Russian Turkestan. Rioting in the Epernay district, France, destroys thousands of gallons of champagne. Rioting in Hankow, China. U. S. troops sent to Mexican border to preserve neutrality of American territory. Terms of proposed Reciprocity Agreement between Canada and the United States made public in Ottawa and Washington. Dynamite and nitro-glycerine explode in New Jersey, killing twenty persons. Funeral of Paul Singer, the German Socialist leader, occasions demonstration by Socialists in Berlin. Persian Minister of Finance assassinated. Fire in Constantinople destroys much of the Sublime Porte. Plague spreads in Manchuria. Rejuvenating effect of radium successfully tried in Paris on an old horse. San Francisco receives a wireless message from a ship 4,492 miles away. Bill to abolish the Veto Power of the House of Lords introduced into the House of Commons and passed on first reading next day. U. S. Senate ratifies the new commercial treaty with Japan. M. Briand, the French Premier, resigns. Australia bars foreign trusts. President Taft signs the bill codifying laws and abolishing Federal Circuit Courts. Renaux wins Michelin prize (£4,000) with a passenger from Paris to Puy-de-Dôme (210 miles in 5 hours). France adopts meridian of Greenwich. The Camorra trial begun in Viterbo (30 accused placed in a cage). M. Delcassé announces

U. S. troops sent to Mexican border.

that in 1920 France would have 22 Dreadnoughts. Roosevelt opens the great Roosevelt dam in Arizona. Luzzatti, the Italian Premier, resigns. Madero announces that he will not lay down arms until President Diaz is out and a "free and unintimidated suffrage assured." Fiftieth Anniversary of Italian Unity celebrated in Rome.]

Premier Luzzatti resigns.

THE TRIUMPH OF ITALY

(A.D. 1911)

RICHARD BAGOT

ONCE again, after long centuries, the Capitol of Rome is the scene of a Triumph. A long array of chained captives follows the victor's car. It is a motley procession. Tyranny, Oppression, Foreign Domination, Ignorance, Superstition, Priestcraft—all these are represented among the ranks of the vanquished; and who shall say that they are not more glorious trophies of victory than any which graced the Triumph of a Cæsar?

The triumph of a race.

But the Capitol is witnessing a scene of far deeper import than the triumphal progress of an individual. It is assisting at the national triumph of a race. Together with the whole of the civilized world it is looking down on the celebration, not of one victorious campaign only, but of a series of hardly fought battles waged for more than half a century against well-nigh overpowering forces both external and internal. That the victory is not yet entirely complete in no way detracts from its significance; for none who have carefully watched the progress of the long fight,

and who have marked the ground already won, can have any doubts as to its ultimate issue.

The events which led to the making of Italy, and the process of that making, are too well known to need any recapitulation in these pages. The object of the present writer is rather to recall to their attention some particulars of the immense task which devolved upon the modern Italians in consequence of the successful transformation of the heterogeneous group of States and peoples—which sixty years ago enabled an Austrian politician to refer to Italy as being merely a geographical expression—into a united Monarchy, and a people inspired by national aims and interests. United Italy.

Let us glance at the social conditions of Italy when the Italians were at last free to place the coping-stone on the edifice they had raised, and to make Rome the capital of the United Kingdom. The quarter of a century immediately preceding that moment had, of necessity, been devoted to a life struggle with foreign foes settled in their midst. Yet, even during a period when the forces, physical and moral, of the newly formed nation were required to expel foreign domination, and the chances of ultimate success were more than doubtful, much was being done in anticipation; and by the time the temporal sovereignty of the Papacy fell, much had been given to Italy by the extraordinary energy of her

liberators, seconded by the self-sacrifice of her sons. Railways, considerable concessions to the principles of Free Trade, which in those days was certainly a greater boon to a nation than it has become under altered circumstances, new and enlightened civil and penal codes, local government, free education—these are only some of the provisions—created in the face of the greatest difficulties and carried into effect with indomitable resolution and surprising rapidity, that were being matured in anticipation against the day when they could become national assets. That these measures, necessary to national progress and civilization, could not be put into operation without a heavy call on the purse of the Italian people was obvious; and the way in which the young nation responded to the call, and still continues to respond to it, is certainly not the least among the factors contributing to the justification of that modern Roman Triumph taking place in the shadow of the Capitol today. So energetically was the work carried out of restoring equilibrium to the national finances which had been forced to undergo so heavy a strain, that in 1876, only six years after the transformation of Rome into the capital of United Italy, the then Minister of Finance, Marco Minghetti, was able to produce a budget which brought the revenue and expenditure of the country to equality.

Equilibrium restored to the national finances.

In later years, and under the wise and lib-

eral reign of Victor Emanuel III., of whom perhaps one may venture to say that he is a better statesman than most of his Ministers, political persecutions have ceased; and the result has been that the extreme parties in the States have largely modified their programs. Although social problems are still acute, and perpetual strikes, industrial and agricultural, still bear evidence of a certain amount of social discontent and unrest, the monarchy is ever gaining ground in the affections of the people. Even the Socialists are in their hearts convinced that the fall of the monarchy would mean the disruption and political annihilation of Italy; while the Republicans, who at one time were a not inconsiderable party, have become a *quantité negligéable*. Much of this change of feeling is due to the admirable insight of the young Sovereign himself, and to the courage and devotion which he and his Queen have exhibited on all occasions—and these have been many—when disaster has overtaken some portion of the kingdom. Nor have their sympathies with sorrow and suffering been confined to moral expression only. The magnificent generosity of the King is repeatedly shown in the most practical of ways; while the name of Queen Elena has become a household word for goodness and charity in thousands of Italian homes throughout the country.

A sympathetic King and Queen.

Of all the criticism to which modern Italy

is subjected by the superior foreigner (and like all young people she has to endure a good deal of criticism from her elders) perhaps the most shallow is that stock-in-trade one, which taunts her with having lost the artistic spirit that might be supposed to be her especial patrimony. I hope I may escape the accusation of being a Philistine if I venture to suggest that the utilitarian rather than the artistic spirit is of primary importance to a young nation. It may be true that the modern Italians have not that artistic sense which so specially distinguished their forefathers. Indeed, the streets of Rome and of other great Italian cities bear painful witness to the remarkable decay of that sense; while the artistic output in what are known as the Fine Arts is, in the main, on a very deplorable level when compared with that of past centuries. But the critics in question are apt to forget, or despise, the existence of what may be termed the utilitarian arts—and in many of these last Italy has shown herself to be second to none, and, in some, a pioneer. It would almost seem as though Italian intellect had been specially directed into other channels than those of purely creative art in order successfully to deal with the new position in which the events of fifty years ago placed her. To produce distinguished men in the fields of social and applied science, medicine, surgery, engineering, and invention has indisputably been of

The reign of the utilitarian spirit.

greater practical service to modern Italy than the reincarnation of the entire company of those mighty artists of the *cinquecento* and *seicento* who made her so famous in the past. A fairer criticism would be to admit that, while the higher ideals of creative art in all its branches save that of music are dormant in the Italians of the present day, they are nobly replaced by inventive and creative genius belonging to other domains of human intellect more important to a nation, occupied in the supreme task of securing to itself its rightful position among the leading countries of the world.

National progress.

It is natural that the majority of visitors to Italy should form their opinions as to her national progress in the last fifty years chiefly by what meets their eye in the larger towns. These present evidence enough that the modern Italians have wasted neither their time nor their opportunities. We have only to compare the present conditions of such cities as Rome and Naples with those of even twenty years ago to realize the immense improvements that have been accomplished in every direction. Some mistakes, no doubt, have been made, and some relics of the past have been too hastily swept away which might have been spared without any considerable sacrifice of public convenience. Many of us know, however, to our cost, how difficult is the task of altering an old

house so as to bring it into line with modern requirements, without committing acts of archæological and æsthetic sacrilege, and the problem is certainly not easier of solution in the case of ancient cities which have to be remodeled in accordance with the requirements of vastly increased populations, and those of scientific hygienic principles. Moreover, we are so much accustomed in these days to accept as a matter of course all that modern science has placed at our disposal to add to the safety and convenience of our daily lives that it may be doubted whether any but a very few among us stop to consider what these things really represent.

Progress in the country towns.

As one who is used to spend most of his life in country districts in Italy, I venture to think that in these, even more than in the cities, are to be found the most striking object-lessons in Italian national progress. It is in the small country towns and villages that comparisons with the old order of things may best be made, and that, perhaps an idea may best be formed of the immense work which modern Italy has already accomplished in a couple of generations of national existence. This phase of Italian life very naturally escapes the attention of the average visitor to Italy who is seldom brought into anything but a fleeting and superficial contact with it. And yet, I think, it is to the rural districts and to the small local towns that one must look, if one wishes really

to judge of the stability either of a nation's progress or of a people's character. And especially is this the case with Italy. She has no great industrial cities on the scale that is to be found in coal-producing countries, with the exception of Milan, Genoa, and Naples. The remainder depend quite as much, or more, on their historic and artistic past for their importance and their influence as on their present capacity for trade or manufacture; though several of lesser rank, such as Bari, Livorno, and some others must not be placed in this category.

Changes in rural life.

One of the most striking changes which have taken place in Italian rural life is that of the rapid disappearance of that spirit of jealousy and unfriendliness between inhabitants of neighboring villages and towns which forms part of what Italians significantly call "campanilismo"—or the spirit of the church-steeple. Until comparatively recent years it was no uncommon thing for adjacent villages and country towns to be in a permanent state of feud with each other. Each place was firmly convinced that only those who had been born under the shadow of its own *campanile* were worthy of esteem or confidence; and in some parts, and notably in the remote district in which I live, this spirit formerly ran so high that young fellows from one little town could scarcely show themselves in others in the immediate neighborhood without being exposed

to jeers and insults which frequently provoked very deplorable scenes. This may seem a matter of small importance; but in reality it is not so. These local misunderstandings and dissensions considerably retarded the genuine unity of the newly formed nation. They interfered with the growth of that public opinion which is so important a factor in the progress of any nation, and which, unfortunately, is still to a large degree lacking to Italy. Education has certainly helped enormously in the eradication of this spirit; but even more efficacious has been the influence of compulsory military service. It is not necessary to be in sympathy with militarism to recognize the fact that, had force of circumstances not rendered it imperative to Italy to maintain a large army and navy which could only be kept in an efficient state by conscription, it would have been well-nigh impossible for her to have consolidated her union, and still less to have accomplished all that she has accomplished in so short a period. Not the least wise reformation, even from the purely political point of view, which has in recent years been adopted by the Italian Government is that of its military system. Formerly the soldier's life was made unnecessarily hard, and, indeed, almost brutalizing during his term of service, and it may be doubted whether the rough village lad and the town-bred youth belonging to the lower

Good effects of compulsory military service.

classes did not often return to their native places as even less desirable members of the community than when they left them; importing, too, vices and other acquisitions certainly not beneficial either to the moral or physical health of the population. Of late years, however, the young soldier is no longer treated as but little better than an animal. Both his health and his morals are looked after; and, though the discipline of the Italian army and navy is severe, it is no longer unreasonable, and the tendency is ever to reconcile it with an aim to elevate instead of debasing the nature of those undergoing it. The result of this more humane system is not only beneficial to individuals, but of immense advantage to the State, inasmuch as those now serving their military term return to their homes as a general rule transformed into self-respecting and useful citizens, instead of embittered, and often corrupted undesirables.

Betterment of the soldier's condition.

Another development in Italian rural life, and one which is wholly advantageous, is the remarkable movement in the direction of public thrift which has taken place during the last few years. Co-operative societies, savings banks, and people's banks exist on a scale and on a system immeasurably superior to anything of the kind that we can show in England. Co-operative stores are to be found in even the most insignificant country villages, and I can vouch for the fact that the goods sold by them

Co-operative societies.

are often superior in quality to those one may purchase at almost double the price at the shops in the large towns. Friendly societies are numerous, and many of these are wealthy enough to advance loans at a reasonable rate of interest to the agriculturist or peasant proprietor, who again finds assistance and encouragement in the agricultural syndicates. It must be confessed that this movement is largely due to the action of the Socialists, and it must be noted that its initiation was the almost immediate result of the change in the policy of the Italian Government towards Socialism which has been a feature in the reign of the present Sovereign. Instead of attempting to destroy, as is the case with English Socialism, Italian Socialism has honorably and systematically set itself to build up—and in this lies the whole distinction between the two. One may surely be allowed without departing from one's principles, to testify to the beneficent action of the latter, and to express one's regret that Socialism should ever aim at exceeding the limits of its *programma minimo*.

Socialism in Italy.

It would be hopeless, indeed, to attempt to enumerate within the limits of an article the many victories won by modern Italian energy and statesmanship in the rural districts over conditions, habits, customs, and traditions belonging to the past which were not the less pernicious to the welfare of the country because they happened sometimes to be pictur-

esque. These are victories which have been gained silently and unostentatiously, and which have usually escaped the attention of foreigners.

It is only, I venture to think, foreigners like myself who spend a considerable portion of their lives among Italian rural surroundings who can, perhaps, fully appreciate the magnitude of the work accomplished by Italy in the space of a few years—and I use the term of a few years advisedly, for the work done and the progress made in the last twelve years is far more marked than it was in the same period immediately preceding them.

[President Diaz addresses Mexican Congress and outlines a plan of reform. Japanese expedition to the South Pole sails from Wellington, New Zealand. Sixty-second Congress holds extra session. Fire in ten-story factory building, New York. Fire burns Capitol in Albany, New York, destroying the State Library (600,000 volumes), 400,000 manuscripts, and many ancient Dutch and English colonial documents ($6,000,000 damage). Fez attacked by 3,000 Berbers. Mexican Government and insurgents conclude four days' armistice to discuss terms of peace. Peking issues edict proclaiming cessation of the plague (60,000 deaths). Floods in Buenos Aires. Fez besieged by rebels. Rioters in Canton burn Government offices. Fire in

New York's State Capitol burned.

Bangor, Maine ($6,000,000 loss). President Taft's proposal for a general treaty of arbitration between the United States and the British Empire supported by a great meeting of citizens at the Guildhall, London. U. S. Supreme Court sustains the right of the United States to exercise complete jurisdiction over forest reserves. Synodal Council of the Swiss Canton of Grisons votes for the admission of women to pastorates. Thomas W. Stanford gives $100,000 to the Stanford University, Cal., half to be devoted to the study of psychic phenomena. Japanese South Polar Expedition abandoned. Excavations beneath the Mosque of Omar, Jerusalem (the supposed site of Solomon's Temple), result in Moslem rioting. Peace Conference meets in Baltimore. Major Brémond's relief reaches Fez, and Fez is blockaded. Lloyd George introduces the Individuality and Unemployed Insurance Bill. Battle in Mexico, insurgents defeated. Unionist Party Bill for the reconstruction of the House of Lords introduced by Lord Lansdowne. First direct telephone communication between New York and Denver (2,000 miles). Opium agreement signed at Peking. Imperial Edict at Peking abolishes obsolete ministries and creates a Cabinet, General Staff and Privy Council. Civil War in Mexico is renewed, the insurgents capturing Juarez. First all-metal biplane successfully tested in Mineola, N. Y. Supreme

Fez blockaded.

Court upheld the decision of the lower court in dissolving the Standard Oil Company owing to a violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. British House of Commons passes the act curtailing the Veto power of the House of Lords. Zeppelin air-ship *Deutschland* wrecked while being taken out of its shed. President Diaz resigned. Mexican Government and revolutionists sign a peace agreement at Juarez.] President Diaz resigns.

DIAZ: THE MAKER OF MODERN MEXICO

(A.D. 1911)

E. ALEC TWEEDIE

DIAZ has been hurled from power in his eighty-first year!

The rising against him in Mexico has the character of a national revolutionary movement, the aims of which, perhaps, Madero himself has not clearly understood. One thing the nation wanted, apparently, was the stamping out of what the party considered political immorality, fostered and abetted by the acts of what they called the *grupo cientifico,* or grafters, and by the policy of the Minister of Finance, Limantour, in particular. Therefore, when Madero stood up as the chieftain of the revolution, inscribing on his banner the redress of this grievance, with some utopias, the people followed him without stopping to measure his capabilities. His promises were enough.

Graft in Mexico.

Diaz has reached a great age. On the 15th September, 1910, he celebrated his eightieth birthday. He has ruled Mexico, with one brief interval of four years, since 1876. For thirty-five years, therefore, with one short break, the country has known no other Presi-

dent; and Madero, who has laid him low, was a man more or less put into office by Diaz himself. A new generation of Mexicans has grown up under the rule of Diaz. Time after time he has been re-elected with unanimity, no other candidate being nominated—nor even suggested. Is it to be wondered at that, by the time his seventh term expired in 1910, he should have at last come to regard himself as indispensable?

Had he retired in 1910 he would have done so with honor, and every hostile voice in Mexico would have been stilled. All would have been forgotten in remembrance of the immense debt that his country owed him. He would have stood out as the great historic figure of a glorious era in the national annals. It was the first time he had broken his word with the people. Staying too long, he has been driven from office by a movement of ideas, the strength of which it is evident that he never realized until too late, and by a rebellion that in the days of his vigorous autocracy he would have stamped out with his heel.

Mexico's "Grand Old Man."

His real career began at forty-six. Up to that time he had been an officer in a somewhat disorganized army, and his ambition at the outset never soared beyond a colonelcy.

He was nearly fifty when he entered Mexico City at the head of a revolutionary force. Romance and adventure were behind

him, although personal peril still dogged his steps. He had to forget that he was a soldier, and to be born again as leader and politician, a maker and not a destroyer. In that capacity he had absolutely no experience of public affairs but such as he had gained in a small way in early years spent in Oaxaca. Yet Diaz became a ruler and a diplomat, and assumed the courtly manners of a prince.

Even at sixty he was only on the high road to his best, and he reached it about ten years later. At seventy-five he lacked nothing, either in energy or variety of power, that goes to the equipment of a ruler of men. This is especially remarkable for one of his race, born in a semi-tropical land.

Paradoxical as it may seem, his overthrow is the result of a revolution mainly pacific in its nature, and in substance a revolt of public feeling against abuses that have become stereotyped in the system of government by the too long domination of one masterful will. The military rising was but its head, spitting fire. Behind was an immense body of opinion, in favor of effecting the retirement of the President by peaceful means, and with all the honor to one who had served his country well.

Diaz announces that he will retire.

In 1908 General Diaz had stated frankly, in an interview granted to an American journalist, that he was enjoying his last term of office, and at its expiration would spend his remaining years in private life. There is no

reason to doubt that this assurance represented his settled intention. The announcement was extensively published in the Mexican Press, and was never contradicted by the President himself. Then rumors gained currency that Diaz was not unprepared to accept nomination for the Presidency for an eighth term. The statement was at first discredited, then repeated without contradiction in a manner that could hardly have failed to excite alarm. At length came the fatal announcement that the President would stand again.

Hardly had the bell of Independence ceased ringing out in joyous clang on September 15, 1910, in celebration of free Mexico's centenary, hardly had the gorgeous *fêtes* for the President's birthday, or the homage paid him by the whole world run their course, when the spark of discontent became a blaze. He had mistaken the respect and regard of his people for an invitation to remain in office.

The spark of discontent becomes a blaze.

By the time the Presidential election approached, signs of agitation had increased. A political party rose in direct hostility, not so much to General Diaz himself or Limantour, as to the Vice-President, who, as next in the succession, in the event of the demise of the President, would have been able to rivet the autocracy on the country.

To the general hatred of this group on the part of the nation, Madero owed his success. He was almost unknown, but the malcontents

The malcontents choose a leader.

were determined to act, and to act at once, and they could not afford to pick and choose for a leader. As a proof that the country thought less of the democratic principles invoked than of the destruction of the official "cientificos" may be cited the fact that it at first placed all its trust and confidence in General Reyes, who is just as despotic and autocratic as General Diaz, but has at the same time, to them, a redeeming quality—his avowed opposition to the gang. Reyes refused to head the insurrection, and it was then Madero or nobody.

Madero.

In the spring of 1910 Francisco I. Madero came to the front. He was a man of education, of fortune, of courage, and a lawyer by profession. He had written a book entitled the "Presidential Succession," and, although without experience in the management of State affairs, he had shown that he had the courage of his convictions. He consented to stand against Diaz in a contest for the Presidency of the Republic.

Energetic, courageous, and outspoken, Madero had full command of the phraseology of the demagogue. His only shortcoming in the eyes of his own party was that he had not been persecuted by the Government. The officials, alas! soon supplied this deficiency. A few days before the Presidential election in July, 1910, when making a speech at Monterey, Madero was arrested as a disturber of

the peace and thrown into prison, where he was kept until the close of the poll.

The election resulted, as usual, in a triumphant majority for General Diaz, though votes were recorded, even in the capital itself, for the anti-reëlectionist leader.

As soon as opportunity offered, Madero escaped to the United States, and from that vantage-ground kept up a correspondence with his friends and partisans. Though the election had been held in July, the inauguration of the President did not take place until December, 1910.

Madero goes to the United States.

Trouble followed trouble in the north, which, be it remembered, runs to a distance of over a thousand miles from Mexico City itself. But nothing very serious occurred, until suddenly, in the early weeks of the present year, President Taft mobilised a force of 20,000 American troops to watch the Mexican frontier. From that time events developed rapidly till the end of the Diaz *régime* in May. These are such recent events that there is no need to recapitulate them. Diaz saved his honor, as the phrase goes, by a declaration that he would not retire from office until peace was declared, and he kept his word. He was too ill to leave his simple home in one of the chief streets of the city, where he lived less ostentatiously than many of his fellow-citizens but this did not prevent the mob from firing upon his home. On the afternoon of May

Diaz retires.

25th, 1911, he resigned, and Senor De La Barra, formerly Minister at Washington, became provisional President until the next election, fixed for October. Madero was the hero of the hour.

Diaz's departure.

Three days after signing his abdication, General Diaz was well enough to leave Mexico City. In the early hours of the morning three trains drew up filled with his own soldiers and friends, in the middle one of which the ex-President, his wife, the clever and beautiful Carmelita, Colonel Porfirio Diaz, his son, with his young wife, several children and their ten-days-old baby were seated. Along the route the train came upon a force of seven hundred rebels. A sharp encounter ensued. The revolutionists left thirty dead upon the field; the escort, which numbered but three hundred, lost only three men. The old fighting spirit returned to the old lion, and, unarmed, the ex-President descended from his car and took part in the engagement. He entered Mexico City fighting, and he has left her shores with bullets ringing in the air. This was but the second time that Diaz had left the land of his birth.

It is a peculiar circumstance from which the future historian of Mexico and its famous President will draw a moral, that Diaz had himself foreseen the evil which after five-and-thirty years has been his own undoing. No one more staunchly than he had upheld the

law which sought to make impossible the re-election for a second term of the President of the Republic and the Governors of the States. In forty years of anarchy between the attainment of Mexican independence, in 1821, and the arrival of the hapless Emperor Maximilian this had been the issue at stake in a hundred battles. Nothing was easier than for a dictator, once he had secured election to the President's chair, constitutionally so to manipulate the voting that, save by an armed rising, he could never be displaced.

That became the system. In the welter of Mexican history in the first half of the last century hardly one President succeeded another by the peaceful means of votes cast at the polls.

Political elections. Political elections were "managed" in almost every contest in the most ridiculous way. In Mexico, before the time of Diaz, there had been fifty-two dictators, presidents, or other rulers, in less than sixty years. The method was brought to full perfection by the unscrupulous Santa Anna. The other South American Republics also gave countless examples. The gravity of the danger was recognized by the founders of the Mexican Constitution in 1857, and they made the President ineligible for re-election. But this provision, though desirable, had in the divided state of the country never been enforced.

For this Diaz fought campaign after cam-

paign—at first for President Juarez in the long struggle against Maximilian and his henchman Bazaine, which ended with the Emperor's execution. But when Juarez came forward in 1871 for a further term of the Presidency, Diaz turned against him, and placed himself at the head of a military revolt which only collapsed on the President's death.

The single term Presidency had the foremost place in the *Pronunciamento* on which Diaz fought his way to the supreme power in 1876.

That campaign, so momentous as it proved for the future interests of Mexico, had been brought about almost entirely by the attempt of Lerdo De Tejada, President at the time, to manipulate the voting in order to secure his own re-election to office, in violation of the Constitutional law.

Diaz, therefore, could not himself be elected for a second term in 1880, and as a consequence of the principle he had himself laid down he had the misfortune to be forced to stand helplessly aside and see much of his own good work undone, under the unscrupulous Gonzales, who succeeded him.

Diaz's work undone by Gonzales.

Therefore Diaz returned to the Presidential chair on the 1st December, 1884, and never vacated it till the other day. When his four years had expired the country was under changed conditions; the immense reforms

and works for the development of Mexico that he had set on foot were uncompleted; it was felt that any change in the head of the State would at that time be disastrous. And so, with substantially the universal assent of his countrymen, the Constitution was again altered, that Diaz might continue President and carry on his labors. This was not his doing. He did not initiate it; but he accepted the charge laid upon him by the nation.

The Constitution is altered.

His work is now imperishable. Mexicans, I am sure, will regret the pitiful circumstance under which his fall has come about, and he will live long in the hearts of his countrymen. Nothing can alter the fact that he made modern Mexico.

[Relief column arrives at Fez. Start of the great aerial race from Paris to Madrid. M. Train's monoplane falls, killing M. Berteaux, the French War Minister, and injuring M. Monis, the Premier. M. Védrines wins the Paris-to-Madrid air-race. Opening of the New York Public Library (cost over $10,000,000) containing over 400,000 volumes. New Dreadnought, *Wyoming,* launched at Philadelphia. A similar decision to that of the Standard Oil Company was arrived at by the Supreme Court in the case of the American Tobacco Corporation. Fortress Laloma at Managua, Nicaragua, blown up. M. Beaumont wins the aeroplane race from Paris

to Rome. Lieutenant Bague of the French army lost while flying across the Mediterranean. Turkish bandits demand $75,000 ransom for Richter, the German explorer, held captive on the Thessaly border. Earthquake in Mexico City before the triumphant entry of General Madero. *Friedrich der Grosse* (10th German Dreadnought) launched at Hamburg. Prince of Wales installed as Knight of the Garter at Windsor. Fire in St. Louis, Mo. (loss $1,000,000). Demonstration of 40,000 women suffragists marching to Albert Hall, London. Opening of the "European Circuit" aerial race, Paris (three deaths). Coronation of King George and Queen Mary in Westminster Abbey.]

Coronation of King George V.

THE CORONATION

(A.D. 1911)

BY AN EYEWITNESS

ON THE morning of the Coronation London was transformed into a vast theatre. Wherever the procession was to pass, the fronts of houses were changed to tier upon tier of boxes. The streets were like armed camps. Everywhere the lines were held by quiet, well-ordered troops. As you crossed the Park, if you were fortunate enough to gain entrance, you saw the white tents of the soldiers glimmering in the morning sun, as though for joust or tourney. The patience and forethought of the crowd were perfect. It was the purpose of every one to help the progress of his neighbor. On all sides were loyalty and good-nature. It was difficult not to feel pride in a people, which at this moment of poignant feeling could bear itself with so benign a composure. The Coronation of George V., in truth, demands a new chapter in the Psychology of the Crowd. As I went to the Abbey there was no disorder, no discomfort. All had but one object in view,—to see their King pass to his Crowning. None could attain this object at the expense of his

The patience and loyalty of the crowd.

fellow. It was a unique experience of good-humor and amiable bearing. And the restraint of the throng must not be taken as a sign of apathy. The excitement of the people was as keen as its forbearance was admirable. The whole city watched its monarch. There was no space which lacked an eager spectator. "You would have thought," in Shakespeare's noble words, "the very windows spoke"—

> So many greedy looks of young and old
> Through casements darted their desiring eyes
> Upon his visage; and that all the walls
> With painted imagery, had said at once,
> "Jesu, preserve thee!"

The scene in the Abbey.

The scene in the Abbey was a scene of dignified magnificence. All was arranged for the great ceremony of the Coronation. It was with difficulty that the spectator disengaged the familiar architecture. The grouped pillars at the crossing still soared to the roof. The rest of the Church was swathed in the suits of pomp and rejoicing. The carpet of deep blue which covered the floor was relieved by the brilliant hues of the East. The uniforms of scarlet and gold, the white dresses of the ladies, made a background of vivid splendor. Hither and thither moved the high officers of State. The regalia are carried from the Altar in solemn procession. The Bishops ranged themselves in what was called the Theatre. The Peers took their places in the

South Transept. Then a long pause, and as the time of waiting grew from minutes to hours, we felt not the tedium of delay. To gaze upon this setting of vivid and various color was sufficient for curiosity. We would not, if we could, have hastened the opening of the drama. At last there are the sounds of martial music. The trumpets blare, the drums beat, and the Procession of the Queen enters with measured solemnity. Seven ladies hold the Queen's embroidered train, and follow her footsteps up the nave, until she reaches her seat in the Theatre. The organ plays, "I was glad when they said unto me, We will go into the house of the Lord." And the King follows the Queen to his place in the Choir.

The profound religious service.

Thus began the profoundly religious service of the crowning of the King. In one sense it was a pageant, as all processions are pageants, to whatever end and with whatever purpose they are made. No spectator could help admiring the splendid spectacle unfolded before his eyes. It is true that every effect was rehearsed. Without rehearsal it would have been plainly impossible to perform the high ceremonial. But in the pageant there was nothing theatrical. In every gesture, in every movement, there was a sincere intensity of aim which could not but seize upon the imagination of us all. We were confronted, not by a dramatic representation, but by a real experi-

ence of human life. The King and Queen, the Archbishops and Bishops, the mighty officers of State, the Earl Marshal, the Lord Great Chamberlain and the rest, were all living personages, performing such duties as were prescribed them a thousand years ago; and as we watched their gestures, and heard the beautiful words which their presences evoked, we felt that we, one and all, were taking our part too in this august ceremonial of Kingship.

The words of the service.

As the King entered all was in readiness. The simple words of the service suggested that no step in the preparation had been neglected. "In the morning upon the day of the Coronation early," thus it runs, "care is to be taken that the Ampulla be filled with Oil and, together with the Spoon, be laid ready upon the Altar in the Abbey Church." Then there followed a series of historical pictures, old yet familiar, simple yet grandiose. As we looked upon them we lost all sense of time, and kept a very vivid memory of the place in which we sat. We might have been thrust back into the fourteenth century. We saw and heard nothing which we might not have seen and heard in this same Church of St. Peter six hundred years ago. The same symbolism, the same personages, passed before us, as passed before the faithful subjects of the Plantagenet Kings. No sooner were the King and Queen placed upon their fald-stools, than

the Archbishop performed the act of Recognition. "Sirs," said he to each part of the Theatre in turn, "I here present unto you King George, the undoubted King of this Realm: Wherefore all you who are come this day to do your homage and service, Are you willing to do the same?" The question was answered by one outburst of acclamation. From every corner came loyal shouts of "God save King George," which, mingled with the *Vivats* of the Westminster boys, rough and sincere, was the people's best answer of loyalty and devotion.

Again the trumpets sounded, and the Bible, Paten, and Chalice, together with the Regalia, were placed solemnly upon the Altar. And after the Litany had been sung by two Bishops, the Coronation Service began. The Epistle and Gospel were read, and then the Archbishop of York preached his sermon. He could not have chosen a wiser text: "I am among you as he that serveth," and in insisting rather upon the service of kingship than upon its splendor and privilege, he spoke the truth, which was in the minds of all men. As the last words of the Sermon, "So help us God," died upon the air, the Archbishop of Canterbury administered the Oath. "Sir," said he, in his clarion tones, "is your Majesty willing to take the Oath?" And when at last the King, with his hand upon the Bible, had signed the oath, then began the service of symbolism,

The Archbishop of York's sermon.

which will stay for ever in the minds of all those that witnessed it.

In these days of progress, how pleasant is it, and how reviving, to look upon the august ceremonies of the feudal age! Nothing was done, nothing was said in Westminster Abbey, which had not a profound and time-honored meaning. As the Choir sang "Zadok the priest and Nathan the prophet anointed Solomon king," to Handel's noble setting, and echoed in its anthem, "God save the King, Long live the king," the King rose from his prayer, took off his cap of state, was disrobed of his crimson robe by the Lord Great Chamberlain, and took his place, for the first time, in King Edward's Chair, the chair which holds the mythical and sacred stone of Scone. And as he sat enthroned, four Knights of the Garter held over his head a rich pall of silk, or cloth of gold. The imagination cannot picture a scene more solemn or richer in historical association. The King was anointed and consecrated King over his people. The Dean of Westminster put upon him the Colobium Sindonis and the Supertunica of cloth of gold; the Lord Great Chamberlain, like a true knight of chivalry, touched the King's heels with the Spurs, and girt about him the Sword of State; and when it was girt about him the Archbishop showed its purpose in those eloquent words: "With this Sword do justice, stop the growth of iniquity, protect the holy Church of God, help

King Edward's Chair and the stone of Scone.

and defend widows and orphans, restore the things that are gone to decay, maintain the things that are restored, punish and reform what is amiss, and confirm what is in good order." Thus with the true symbol and in the proper terms, are set forth the whole duty and responsibility of Kingship; nor does this conclude the ceremony of the Sword. "Then the King, rising up," thus runs the form and order of the service, "shall ungird his Sword, and, going to the Altar, offer it there in the scabbard, and then return and sit down in King Edward's Chair: and the Peer, who first received the Sword, shall offer the price of it, namely, one hundred shillings, and having thus redeemed it, shall receive it from the Dean of Westminster, from off the Altar, and draw it out of the scabbard, and carry it naked before his Majesty during the rest of the solemnity." Nowhere else will you so surely surprise the spirit of the past, which still breathes in the present, as in this passage of reverend ceremonial.

So the King was solemnly invested with the Armill and Royal Robe, with the Orb, the Ring, and the Sceptre. At each investiture he was more sternly consecrated to the service of God and his People. Then at last came the highest moment of the Ceremony—the Putting on of the Crown. Like all great actions, the Crowning itself was an action of extreme simplicity. Priceless in association, the Crown of

The different investitures.

St. Edward, in which shone the historic jewels of England, evoked less wonder for itself than for the significance of its putting on. As the Archbishop spoke the moving words, "O God, the crown of the faithful: Bless we beseech thee and sanctify this thy servant George our King: and as thou dost this day set a Crown of pure gold upon his head, so enrich his royal heart with thine abundant grace, and crown him with all princely virtues," there ran a feeling of joy through all the people. At last we had a King crowned and enthroned. From every side arose loud shouts of "God save the King," the Peers and the Kings of Arms donned their coronets, and the echo of the guns was heard in the Abbey, now loudly from the Horse Guards, now faintly from the greater distance of the Tower.

The crowning of the King and Queen.

If the Crowning, in all its simplicity, was the highest moment in import and feeling of the whole ceremony, the homage which followed did not yield to it a jot in picturesqueness. As in the times of feudalism, so in this age of a widely extended franchise, the Princes and Peers did their homage publicly and solemnly to the King. The Archbishop came first to pay the debt of his allegiance. The Prince of Wales followed him, and surely no act of this wonderful day was more tensely dramatic than this. Kneeling before the King, the young Prince spoke aloud the noble words of the oath: "I do become your liege

man of life and limb, and of earthly worship; and faith and truth I will bear unto you, to live and die, against all manner of folks. So help me God." No one present could witness without a thrill this act of homage, which, ancient though it be, is as closely binding as ever it was in the ampler days of chivalry.

The Queen's Coronation followed the King's in purpose and design. The Queen, too, stood beneath the pall of cloth of gold, which for her was held by four Peeresses. She, too, was anointed and crowned, was invested with the symbols of her exalted station, and took her place at the King's side. Then, after the Communion and the Recess, they passed down the nave of the Church, crowned and bearing the emblems of sovereignty, into the light of day, and so regained their palace amid the sincere and heart-whole enthusiasm of their people.

End of Coronation ceremonies.

[Procession of King and Queen of England, accompanied by Premiers of the Imperial Dominions, Indian Princes and troops. Review of 200 warships off Spithead. Royal Progress through London and Thanksgiving at St. Paul's Cathedral. Stanley Lake irrigation dam (largest in the world), Colorado, finished. German Government sends warship to Agadir to protect German interests in Morocco. King George and Queen Mary return to Windsor. Boy Scouts (35,000) received at Windsor. Extreme heat in the

United States. King George and Queen Mary visit Dublin and Edinburgh. Investiture of the Prince of Wales at Carnarvon Castle. Anglo-Japanese Alliance renewed for ten years. Intense excitement in Europe upon the announcement that, as compensation for conceding freedom of action in Morocco, Germany demanded territory in the French Congo. Persian Mejliss offer £33,000 on head of ex-Shah. Steamer *Santa Rosa* wrecked on California coast (14 lost). New York, New Haven & Hartford express train wrecked at Bridgeport, Conn. (14 killed). Forest fires in Ontario and Michigan destroyed hundreds of lives. Lord Kitchener appointed British Agent in Egypt. Miss Annie S. Peck scaled two peaks of Corpuna volcano (18,000 and 20,000 feet) in Peru. House of Lords passed the anti-veto bill. Fire in Constantinople. Ex-Shah began his march on Teheran. Anglo-American Arbitration Treaty signed at Washington. Nile boat sunk (100 lives lost). Senate passed Arizona and New Mexico Statehood bill (vetoed by President). House of Commons rejected the Lords Amendment to the Parliament Bill, and after two days' debate the House of Lords by 131 to 114 accepted the Parliament Bill.]

Lord Kitchener made British Agent in Egypt.

THE BOY SCOUT MOVEMENT

ENGLISH

(A.D. 1911)

W. CECIL PRICE

DURING the siege of Mafeking a boy came through rather a heavy fire with a letter. Colonel Baden-Powell said to him, "You will get hit one of these days, riding round like that when the shells are flying." The boy replied, "I pedal so rapidly, Sir, they would never catch me." He was the first of the Boy Scouts, and that boy's spirit is the spirit which actuates hundreds of thousands of similar boys throughout the world to-day. Nothing in the long history of boyhood has established so rapid and powerful an influence as this new order of youthful chivalry. Every day the numbers of the boyish army obtain fresh reinforcements, and the measure of its value finds continual illustration in the contrast between the boys who are still outside and those who are within the movement.

Sir Robert Baden-Powell originator of movement.

The movement really began three-and-a-half years ago when Sir Robert Baden-Powell gathered around him some twelve lads, transported them to Brownsea Island in Dorset,

and there held his first Scouts' camp. At that time no distinctive uniform was worn, the only distinguishing mark being a scroll badge bearing the now famous motto: "Be Prepared." These lads were taught the method of playing at Indians and Knights of King Arthur. They were instructed in woodcraft, told how birds may be distinguished one from the other, and trained to fathom the great secrets which Nature reveals to those who study her. Shortly afterwards Sir Robert addressed meetings in the provinces and gave forth to the world his scheme, the whole object of which is, to use the Chief Scout's own words: "To seize the boy's character in its red-hot stage of enthusiasm, and to weld it into the right shape, and to encourage and develop its individuality, so that the boy may become a good man and a valuable citizen for our country."

Mr. Pearse raises first troop.

Once the lead was given, the boys did the rest. To Mr. Colbron Pearse belongs the honor of raising the first troop at Hampstead. A second troop was started in Putney; and so rapidly did the movement commend itself to the rising generation all over the kingdom, that in April of that year the organization found itself strong enough to start the publication of a journal of its own, "The Scout." This weekly paper was not only to be the official organ of the movement, but it was hoped that its sale might yield a profit which would con-

tribute towards the rent of the headquarters office. One thing the publication of "The Scout" certainly did: it gave an enormous stimulus to the movement. At the time the first number appeared there were probably some fifty "troops" in existence throughout the country; before six months had elapsed the organization rallied to its standard some 80,000 boys.

Perhaps it ought to be explained that the patrol is the unit of organization in the Boy Scout scheme. It consists of some six or eight boys under a senior boy as patrol-leader. A troop comprises not fewer than three patrols, and each patrol-leader is given full responsibility for the behavior of his patrol at all times. The patrol is the unit for work or play, and in camp each patrol is camped in a separate spot. The boys are put "on their honor" to carry out orders. Responsibility and competitive rivalry are thus at once established, and a good standard of development is ensured throughout the troop.

Rapid growth of movement.

All over the country numerous isolated patrols leapt into being with a rapidity which showed plainly that the whole boyhood of the country had been roused to a high pitch of enthusiasm. Before a year had passed a hundred thousand Boy Scouts had become students of "manliness." The idea caught on. It grew and spread, and troops of Boy Scouts can now be found from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from

the Cape to Cairo, Russia, Japan, Holland, Chile, Smyrna, Servia, China, Finland, Morocco—everywhere.

It may be interesting at the present stage to analyze the scheme in all its bearing, and to show its simplicity and its extraordinary practicability. Hitherto the village lad and the town-bred boy were allowed, when out of school, to drift, perhaps, into evil surroundings and associations, to become loafers or "wasters"—mostly unambitious and mostly useless to fight the world's battle just for the natural term of their lives. Their school tuition had probably done its best in its own particular sphere, but it is the after-school-hour problem that is beset with so many difficulties. And this is where the scheme steps in.

Benefits derived from movement.

It helps boys on leaving school to escape the evils of "blind-alley" occupations, i. e., van and newspaper, caddie or messenger work, such as give the boy a wage for the moment, but which leave him stranded without any trade or handicraft to pursue when he is a man, and so send him as a recruit to the great army of unemployed, or unemployable.

The loafing youngster presents himself at the, usually, unpretentious headquarters of a local troop of Scouts; no matter who or what he is, he is welcome; the bigger the hooligan the more welcome he is, and straightway his initiation begins. He is immediately told that there are certain things he must learn before

he is allowed even to call himself a "Tenderfoot"—the very first grade of a Scout. He must make the Scout's promise, become familiar with the Scout Law, understand the composition of the Union Jack and the right way to fly it. He is soon taught to expect nothing for nothing, for he is required to purchase his uniform and provide himself with the whole of his outfit at his own expense. The uniform is smart and workman-like. His hat is of the cow-boy style. Coatless, he wears a khaki-colored shirt of thin serge. Around his neck is a colored handkerchief, a lanyard and a whistle. Trousers give place to "shorts" supported by a leather belt around the waist, on to which is hung a handy knife and pouch. His knees are bare. He wears stockings, turned down below the knees, held in place by garters of green braid. On his back is a haversack, and in his right hand he holds his Scout's staff, marked in feet and inches to enable him to judge height and distances, and for feeling the way more quietly at night.

The uniform.

The ceremony of enrolling a Scout is picturesque and interesting. At the meeting at which the lads are enrolled, each boy is called forward and makes promise "on his honor":

To be loyal to God and the King.

To help others at all times.

To obey the Scout Law.

Saying these words he stands at the salute, with his raised hand to the forehead, palm to

the front, thumb resting on the nail of the little finger—the three upraised fingers are to remind him of the three points of his promise. So he stands, proud and with a high heart beating beneath his shirt, wholesome, clean, typical of chivalry and knighthood. The secrets of the Scout Law are then unfolded to him. It is a creed of honor and chivalry, comparable to the code of the Knights of the Romantic Ages. Here it is:

The Scout Law.

1. "A Scout's honor is to be trusted." That is to say, if a Scout says, "On my honor it is so," it *is* so.

2. "A Scout is loyal to the King, to his officers, his country, and his employers." This is the very essence of good citizenship.

3. "A Scout's duty is to be useful and to help others." In other words, he must be prepared at any time to save life or to help injured persons, and to do a "good turn" to somebody every day.

4. "A Scout is a friend to all, no matter to what social class he may belong." A Scout is never a snob; he accepts the other man as he finds him, and makes the best of him.

5. "A Scout is courteous."

6. "A Scout is a friend to animals."

7. "A Scout obeys orders." Whether these orders are from his parents, patrol leader, Scout Master, or anyone placed in authority over him, he must obey orders instantly, and without question.

8. "A Scout smiles and whistles under all circumstances."

9. "A Scout is thrifty."

10. "A Scout is pure in thought, word, and deed."

Above all he is impressed with the sacredness of his obligation to help others; to lose himself in the general good without sacrificing himself or failing in his duties to those immediately related to him. Of the manner in which the Scouts carry out their vows, the files of newspapers, both here and abroad, afford many instances. The recorded cases of life-saving total many figures, and already no fewer than five bronze Crosses (the highest award), 110 silver Crosses, and 110 Badges of Merit for Gallantry have been awarded by the Chief Scout.

Number of medals awarded.

During his period of probation as a Tenderfoot he gets a thorough grounding in the elements of Scoutcraft. He is coached in elementary first-aid and bandaging, signalling by semaphore and the Morse code, map-reading, etc. Practically all the work is done out of doors, which is after the heart of every lad. He studies the art of tracking, and must be able to follow a track, not too obviously made, for half a mile in twenty-five minutes. The test is made by his officer, who clamps tracking irons to his shoes and lays a trail over grass, plough, stubble, or as ground allows. The town Tenderfoot is taken to where there

are shops; for one minute he looks into four shop windows in turn, and then from memory must describe satisfactorily the contents of one of the windows. He learns, too, how a Scout should lay and light a fire. He is shown that before lighting a fire in the open he must cut away or burn back all bracken, heather, or dry grass round about the place, to prevent a bush-fire, and he learns how to make a fire for cooking, of red-hot wood ashes, which give little smoke, and may be kept going all night. Along with all this useful knowledge the Tenderfoot practices and masters many another fine bit of work or play. Thus, he learns how to dance the Scouts' war dance, and to sing the Scouts' war songs. It is interesting to watch their war dance; advancing, singing in time to the music, and stamping in unison, then retiring, then forming a wide circle, while one steps to the centre and dances solo —telling by action a story of tracking and killing a desperate foe, the others cheering him by dance and song.

The games and competitions introduced all appeal to the boy's natural love of sport. There is nothing dull or dry in Scoutcraft: indeed, it furnishes recreation of the best kind, for it exercises the mind as well as the body.

Scout signs.

Again, take the Scout signs. A Scout is taught the art of making signs which another Scout can understand and read, and when he

has done so to obliterate all traces of such sign. An arrow means "Road to be followed," a small square plus an arrow signifies "Letter hidden three paces from here in direction of arrow"; a cross indicates "This path not to be followed," and "I have gone home" is shown by a circle in the centre of which is placed a circular spot. At night, sticks with a wisp of grass round them, or stones, are laid on the road in similar form, so that they can be felt with the hand. To the signs is added a signature. Every patrol of Scouts has its own name, and its appropriate cry. Those of the Panther patrol "Keeook," the Bats "Pitz-Pitz, Ravens "Kar-Kaw"; thus Scouts of a patrol can communicate with each other when in hiding. Each patrol leader, i. e., a youth in charge of a party of some six or eight Scouts, has a small white flag on the end of his familiar "broom-handle," with the head of his patrol animal or bird shown in red color. The Scout, making, say, a sign on a road for others to read, draws also the head of the patrol animal.

And so the lad proceeds from Tenderfoot to Second-Class Scout, always learning something new, mastering fresh details of his craft until he qualifies as a First-Class Scout, which means that he can swim fifty yards, has at least one shilling in the bank, and is able to signal at the rate of sixteen letters per minute. As a test in self-reliance he is sent on a two-

The qualifications of a First-Class Scout.

days' journey alone or with another Scout. On his return he must write an intelligible report of what he has seen. Then he must know how to render first-aid in common accidents. He must understand how to stay a runaway horse, and so on. He must prove that he can make a damper, cook a hunter's stew, skin and cook a rabbit, or pluck and cook a bird. He must be able to read a map and draw sketch maps, use an axe for felling timber, judge distance, area, size, numbers, height and weight within twenty-five per cent. of the actual dimensions or proportions.

A King's Scout.

He continues to qualify until he attains the proud distinction of King's Scout. This means that he has won badges of merit in such branches of Scoutcraft as seamanship, ambulance work, and signalling, and has passed a stern test in the general craft of the guide. Another important part of a Scout's curriculum is that he may qualify in almost any calling. Thus, a boy gains a badge because he has passed the test as a poultry-farmer, as an engineer, gardener, aviator, bee-farmer, blacksmith, dairyman, electrician, interpreter, photographer, plumber, fireman, woodman, naturalist, coastguard, horseman, leather-worker, printer, etc. Other badges of merit are awarded for proficiency in other branches of work. Accordingly, employers of labor seeking trustworthy boy service will look first among Scouts, knowing that they will find

boys broken to discipline and of manly spirit. Incidentally it may be mentioned that the headquarters of the organization are contemplating the formation of an Employment Bureau in conjunction with the Labor Exchanges, where Scouts may be assisted in securing skilled occupations when in need.

The training also includes, for those boys who live near the water, organized practice of seafaring. It is not intended necessarily to send them to sea as a profession, but to give them something of the handiness and pluck of the seaman, again through a medium which thoroughly appeals to them. "Sea Scouts"—of whom Lord Charles Beresford is the head—are divided into two branches—Coastguard Scouts and Seamen Scouts, and their training follows on those lines. "Sea Scouts."

It was in the second year of the existence of the movement that the work of organization was taken in hand; the wave of enthusiasm was controlled, and at the time of the celebration of the second anniversary there were something like 130,000 Boy Scouts, and there is no reason why they should not reach two, or even three, millions within the next few years.

One of the great secrets of the success of the movement is that it indulges in the barest minimum of interference with outlying centres and groups. The watchword of headquarters is guidance rather than control. Be-

yond insisting that the local associations of this great peace army shall be self-supporting, it allows them to manage their business in their own fashion and by their own methods, so long, of course, as they carry out the general principles of Scoutcraft. It is obvious, however, that if patrols and troops were to spring up on every side, without some central guiding influence, the movement must speedily lose all sort of corporate entity and get out of hand.

In September, 1909, the first big rally of the Scouts was held. Thirteen thousand youngsters from all parts of the kingdom assembled at the Crystal Palace to give a display of Scout practices, and to be inspected by their Chief. Perhaps the most stirring scene was when King Edward's appreciative message was read as follows:

King Edward's message.

"The King is glad to know that the Boy Scouts are holding their first annual parade.

"Please assure the boys that the King takes a great interest in them, and that if he should call upon them later in life, the sense of patriotic responsibility and happy discipline which they are now acquiring as boys will enable them to do their duty as men, should any danger threaten the Empire."

After this had been read thirteen thousand Scouts showed how they could cheer!

King Edward, alas! is dead. But King George has signified his approval of the

scheme by becoming its Patron, and on the 4th of July His Majesty inspected some 40,000 of them at Windsor, perhaps the red-letter day in the history of the movement. Reviewed by the King.

Too much stress can scarcely be laid on the fact that the Scout movement is non-military, non-political, and interdenominational in character. Some individual troops are no doubt organized on military lines, and in virtue of the general policy of non-interference which the central office studiously cultivates towards local centres, so long as the ideals of the movement are observed, these troops are allowed to go their own way. But the movement in its essence is *strictly non-military*.

All its ideals are peace ideals, so much so that there are people who regard the growth of the movement in many lands as an influence tending towards international peace.

THE BOY SCOUT MOVEMENT

AMERICAN

(A.D. 1911)

WALTER PRICHARD EATON

NO ONE who has given the Boy Scout organization a fair trial can doubt for a moment its potential value in gaining the enthusiastic interest and shaping the characters of boys. The difficulty to-day in realizing on this potential value, in making the possibilities of Boy Scouting prevail, lies in finding the right men to act as Scout Masters. And that will, doubtless, remain the difficulty. The Scout movement is most potent because of its spontaneity, its firm base deep in the natural outdoor instincts of boyhood. To make it the adjunct of the Y. M. C. A. or of any other organized charity, however worthy, is to rob it of its best asset. Yet, especially in the cities, it is too commonly falling into the hands of such alien organizations, in spite of the wishes of the National Headquarters to keep the movement a separate thing.

The Scout movement most potent.

The reason is easy to see. It is always a comparatively simple matter to raise money for a "charity" and to employ men to do the

charitable work. It is difficult to find men who are ready and competent to act as volunteers. Arguing that it is better to have a Boy Scout brigade as an adjunct to some local charity organization than to have no patrol at all, the movement is given over to the Y. M. C. A. or the Boys' Club or the church. But it does not belong with any of these excellent institutions. It has its own work to do in its own way, and it should remain free and absolutely unsectarian. Its great need everywhere to-day is *men,* men who are physically and morally sound, who love boys, are not afraid of hard exercise, and are willing to give of their time to a good cause. That there are to-day seven thousand Scout Masters enrolled at the National Headquarters, covering all sections and representing, probably, over 100,000 boys under their care, is a hopeful sign, even though many of them are the regular workers in charitable organizations.

Number of members.

The need of adult workers is most keenly felt in the smaller towns and villages, because the best and most energetic young men in such communities too often desert their homes for the larger cities. The workers are fewest where conditions are otherwise ripest for successful Scouting. In such towns and villages the outdoor life which is at the basis of Scouting is easy to attain; the boys have few rival amusements and interests; and these same boys, too often, are in particular need of help,

because the country boy is likely to be slouchy and uncouth in carriage, mentally unresourceful and without initiative. His parents too frequently are shiftless, his schooling inadequate, and his home hygiene a reproach. Yet it is in just such communities, where the Boy Scout movement could do the most good, that it is most difficult to find men either willing or competent to take charge of the work.

Difficulty in securing leaders.

Of course, in the smaller communities, where there are many sects and strata of society and strong ideas of independence in each, it is particularly essential that the Scout movement be free of any sectarian dominance or any taint of "charity." It ought to be a spontaneous banding together of all sorts and conditions of boys, ruled by men who are disinterested and who command the confidence and respect of the entire community. On no other basis is the Scout movement likely to succeed.

Granted such conditions, let us see what the movement can accomplish. In a certain Massachusetts town of, approximately, 2,000 permanent population, well known to the present writer, a band of Boy Scouts was organized two years ago by a young physician of the place. The town is peculiar in that it has a large summer population of very rich people, and the old-time independent Yankee life of the village has given way to an almost English society, with what few Yankees who

are left and a considerable Irish population as retainers to an aristocracy of dollars. The boys all come from the families of these tradesmen, gardeners, coachmen, etc. There are very few genuine farmers left in the region. There is no Y. M. C. A. in the town (moreover, many of the boys are Roman Catholics), no meeting place for the young people of any sort. The boys used to gather in front of the post office of an evening. There they heard, especially from the chauffeurs of the rich, language that was anything but refined. There was no male school teacher in the town, even in the high school, though the town prides itself on its civic spirit! The boys were entirely neglected abroad, and too many of them at home; and there was much complaint about their rowdyism, their foul language, and their tendency, as fast as they grew into the late teens, to drink bad whisky purchased more or less openly at the village drug store.

Boys too often neglected.

Then the Boy Scout patrol was organized. The doctor, who had no previous experience in such work, secured as helpers three young men in the town equally inexperienced. All four were busy, and could give far less time than should have been given. But still thirty boys were enrolled, uniforms were donated by certain rich summer residents (it would have been far better to have made the boys earn them; always make your boys earn their

equipment if you can), and an active campaign was started. The doctor, one evening a week, taught first aid. Two helpers started basket ball one or two evenings a week in an old building too small for the purpose, but the best available. The fourth helper took the boys on two- and three-day hikes as often as he could find the time and get enough boys together, climbing mountains within half a day's journey which most of the boys had never had the initiative to climb before. On these hikes simple rules of personal hygiene, of sanitation (such as boiling all untested water), of language free from all profanity, were insisted on. The boys learned to cook. They vied with each other to see that every fire was stone dead before leaving it. They learned how to take care of their feet in tramping, how to make maps, how to dress for outdoor life. Some of them in a short time became enthusiastic over mountain views and bits of beautiful natural scenery. Quarrels and foul play in games were almost unknown. It used to be a weary Scout Master who returned with his squad in khaki from these hikes, but a happy one.

What the boys are taught.

In the spring a track meet was arranged with the Boy Scouts in a neighboring town down the valley. The meet was held on the track of the agricultural fair grounds. There had never been any organized athletics for the boys before, the only team of any sort in town

being a summer baseball nine made up chiefly of waiters at the hotel. The boys trained for their meet eagerly. There were full-sized events for the boys over sixteen, up to the mile run; and fifty-yard dashes and sack and three-legged races for the smaller boys. Somebody also donated a cup for a relay race. The meet attracted considerable attention, and brought in more than enough gate money to pay expenses, which is a better way to get it than begging donations. The meet was closely contested, the final score standing 78 to 72. The relay race was won by a margin of four inches, after a nervy sprint to the tape. The boys learned to work together as a team, they showed grit and determination, and they came home with the prize ribbons, proud and happy. Now they are planning another meet, and, with the aid of a surveyor, they have staked off a quarter-mile track of their own, and are going gradually to cover it with ashes.

The boys' sports.

Military discipline is no legitimate part of Scouting in America, but, of course, a certain degree of discipline is not only wholesome for boys, but essential in governing them. None of the Scout Masters in this town of which we speak knew anything beyond the simplest of military evolutions; but these simple evolutions were sufficient to keep the boys in line when marching through a town, and ordinary setting-up exercises were sufficient to give them better ideas of carriage. When the

time came for a certain annual outdoor meeting of the citizens, the Boy Scouts were asked to act as patrols of the grounds. In past years the speakers had been considerably annoyed by small boys in the outskirts of the grove, and there had been more or less rowdyism, and theft of cakes and cookies.

The value of the organization.

Here is where the value of giving boys an organization of their own, and of trusting to their pride and latent sense of responsibility, was made apparent. The boys turned out in uniform. Their patrol leaders (not the adult Scout Masters) assigned each to some task—helping women out of carriages, ushering guests to seats, protecting the food near by while the exercises were going on, and suppressing the small boys on the edge of the grove. Most of these Scouts had themselves been looked upon as natural foes of peace in the past. Now they were trusted with a share in the proceedings, and the honor of their organization was at stake.

Their politeness as ushers, their eagerness in maintaining silence and order, their neat appearance, and good carriage was something of a revelation to the townspeople, and nothing but praise was heard for them. That shows what inexperienced men, working without much material equipment, and with only a fraction of the time to spare which ought to be given to the boys, can accomplish for the

youngsters of a village with the Boy Scout movement behind them.

In this work with the boys, the year has proved to the Scout Masters that their greatest foe is not the boys themselves but the parents. Perhaps other Scout Masters elsewhere have had similar experiences. When a two-day hike is planned in school time, it must be on Saturday and Sunday, or, at any rate Friday afternoon and Saturday. But it usually turns out that only a fraction of the boys in a patrol show up for the start. Joe's mother is afraid he will catch cold sleeping on the ground. Tom's mother wants him to work Saturday morning. Fred is in the high school and has lessons to get, which his mother won't let him study on Sunday. Jack's father wants him to drive the livery team Saturday afternoon. And so it goes. Some of the boys are lazy, of course, and some of them—no doubt due in part, let us hope, to the unconscious influence of their parents—are unwilling to give up, even once a month, that dollar they earn on Saturday as caddies. But, in the present writer's experience with Boy Scouting, it is either the timidity or the heedlessness or the actual greed of the parents, not the boys, which interferes most seriously with the Scout Masters' efforts.

Difficulties in securing attendance.

Of course, the two- and three-day hikes, or camping trips, are the most important part of Scouting, and must always remain so. Not

alone is the woodland life the basis of the Scout appeal, but it is on such trips that the boys are kept most constantly in touch with their Scout Master, are under wholesome discipline, are getting the best possible exercise, and unconsciously storing up beautiful impressions and useful information. There is no game that the smaller boys enjoy so much as tracking, and a good tracker has to have sharp eyes. All boys love to build fires and huts, to swim in strange waters, to explore new places. It is hard to see how any parent can prefer to have his boy caddying for a probably profane golfer or loafing on the street corner, when he might be in the woods, deepening his chest, clearing his eye, learning mechanical expertness, and from waking to sleep time tramping with somebody whose care it is to shape his character for good.

Tracking a favorite game.

Yet the fact remains that in the smaller towns, at any rate, the Scout Masters have to contend with the indifference or actual opposition of the parents as much as with the indifference of the boys. One of the first things for the Scout Master to do is to gain the cooperation of the parents. If you can get an indifferent, lazy boy, apparently destined to street-corner loafing, out into the woods, and rouse his rivalry to excel in swimming or cooking or climbing, you'll find him a pretty real boy after all. But if you look for the cause of his former indifference, you will usually

find it in his home. He is the boy whose parents will not help you. Oftentimes you will have to rouse them before you can rouse him. And that is quite as hard a task as convincing certain Massachusetts mothers that their tough young hopefuls will not get "rheumatics" sleeping "on the bare ground." It is a part of Scouting to teach boys how to avoid colds and afflictions while living in the open—a very useful knowledge to possess, but one for which mothers do not always see the need.

How far Boy Scouting is from being all play may be judged from the requirements for a second- and then a first-class Scout. A second-class Scout must pass the following test:

Second-class Scout tests.

1. At least one month's service as a tenderfoot.

2. Elementary first aid and bandaging; know the general directions for first aid for injuries; know treatment for fainting, shock, fractures, bruises, sprains, injuries in which the skin is broken, burns and scalds; demonstrate how to carry injured, and the use of the triangular and roller bandages and tourniquet.

3. Elementary signaling: Know the semaphore, or American Morse, or Myer alphabet.

4. Track half a mile in twenty-five minutes; or, if in town, describe satisfactorily the contents of one store window out of four observed for one minute each.

5. Go a mile in twelve minutes at Scout's

pace—about fifty steps running and fifty walking, alternately.

6. Use properly knife or hatchet.

7. Prove ability to build a fire in the open, using not more than two matches.

8. Cook a quarter of a pound of meat and two potatoes in the open without the ordinary kitchen utensils.

9. Earn and deposit at least one dollar in a public bank.

10. Know the sixteen principal points of the compass.

First-class Scout tests.

To become a first-class Scout, this is the test he must meet:

1. Swim fifty yards.

2. Earn and deposit at least two dollars in a public bank.

3. Send and receive a message by semaphore, or American Morse, or Myer alphabet, sixteen letters per minute.

4. Make a round trip alone (or with another Scout) to a point at least seven miles away, going on foot or rowing boat, and write a satisfactory account of the trip and things observed.

5. Advanced first aid: Know the methods for panic preventions; what to do in case of fire and ice, electric and gas accidents; how to help in case of runaway horse, mad dog, or snake bite; treatment for dislocations, unconsciousness, poisoning, fainting, apoplexy, sunstroke, heat exhaustion, and freezing; know

treatment for sunburn, ivy poisoning, bites, and stings, nosebleed, earache, toothache, inflammation or grit in eye, cramp or stomachache, and chills; demonstrate artificial respiration.

6. Prepare and cook satisfactorily in the open, without regular cooking utensils, two of the following articles as may be directed: Eggs, bacon, hunter's stew, fish, fowl, game, pancakes, hoe cake, biscuit, hard-tack, or a "twist," baked on a stick; explain to another boy the methods followed.

Map making and map reading.

7. Read a map correctly, and draw, from field notes made on the spot, an intelligible rough sketch map, indicating by their proper marks important buildings, roads, trolley lines, main landmarks, principal elevations, etc. Point out a compass direction without the help of a compass.

8. Use properly an ax for felling or trimming light timber; or produce an article of carpentry or cabinetwork or metal work made by himself. Explain the method followed.

9. Judge distance, size, number, height, and weight within twenty-five per cent.

10. Describe fully from observation ten species of trees or plants, including poison ivy, by their bark, leaves, flowers, fruit, or scent. Or six species of wild birds by their plumage, notes, tracks, or habits; or six species of native wild animals by their form, color, call, tracks, or habits; find the North Star,

and name and describe at least three constellations of stars.

11. Furnish satisfactory evidence that he has put into practice in his daily life the principles of the Scout oath and law.

12. Enlist a boy trained by himself in the requirements of a tenderfoot.

It is apparent at a glance that a boy who can qualify as a first-class Scout has absorbed a good deal of useful information, and trained his hand, eye, and mind in many directions. In addition, to prove that he has put into practice in his own life the principles of the Scout oath means that he must be an upright boy, honest in speech, helpful in deed, obedient to his leaders, and respectful of the laws.

It is also apparent that to aid boys to pass this test the adult Scout Masters must be men with some practical experience of the woods, with a good bit of physical stamina, and, above all, with the right moral influence over the young, alike to discipline and to inspire them. It is not necessary that the Scout Masters be able themselves to impart all the instruction required. The Scout Manual, a full and interesting book, will do that. If it were, there would be fewer Scout Masters than at present! But the Scout Master must be able at least to handle himself convincingly in the woods; he must be physically alert and dexterous to learn with the boys. He must himself be honest, kindly, and obey the Scout oath.

The Scout Manual.

Above all, he must be *just;* he must see that fair play is always the rule.

It ought to be apparent that the Boy Scout movement is something far more than a boys' club to "keep the lads out of mischief." It is a carefully and skillfully planned movement to build up their bodies, rouse their faculties, and shape their characters; primarily through their instinctive love of woodcraft, and then through its allied sciences, industries, sports, and sentiments. It is spontaneous in origin, but disciplined in organization; and it makes the boys, so far as possible, their own rulers, and so potentially fitted to be citizens in the days to come. It deserves a branch in every community.

But every branch requires for its inception and continuance the unselfish labor of a certain number of men. On its finding the right men now, and its ability to train such men out of its own ranks for the future, the success of the Boy Scout movement depends. To every Scout Master to-day we would say as a final word: "Don't be discouraged. Pick out your best boys and drill into them a sense of elder brother responsibility for the little chaps. Train them to be the Scout Masters of to-morrow. In the words of our Scout badge, 'Be Prepared!'" The Scout Motto.

HOW THE LORDS SURRENDERED

(A.D. 1911)

GEORGE S. C. SWINTON

IT HAS been more like a bull-fight than anything else, or perhaps the bull-baiting, almost to the death, which went on in England in days of old. For the Peerage is not quite dead, but sore stricken, robbed of its high functions, propped up and left standing to flatter the fools and the snobs, a kind of painted screen, or a cardboard fortification, armed with cannon which cannot be discharged for fear they bring it down about the defenders' ears. And in the end it was all effected so simply, so easily could the bull be induced to charge. A rag was waved, first here, then there, and the dogs barked. That was all.

Attack on the peerage.

It is not difficult to be wise after the event. Everybody knows now that with the motley groups of growing strength arrayed against them it behoved the Peers to walk warily, to look askance at the cloaks trailed before them, to realize the danger of accepting challenges, however righteous the cause might be. But no amount of prudence could have postponed the catastrophe for any length of time, for indeed the House of Lords had become

an anachronism. Everything had changed since the days when it had its origin, when its members were Peers of the King, not only in name but almost in power, princes of principalities, earls of earldoms, barons of baronies. Then they were in a way enthroned, representing all the people of the territories they dominated, the people they led in war and ruled in peace. They came together as magnates of the land, sitting in an Upper House as Lords of the shire, even as the Knights of the shire sat in the Commons. And this continued long after the feudal system had passed away, carried on not only by the force of tradition, but by a sentiment of respect and real affection; for these feelings were common enough until designing men laid themselves out to destroy them.

Effects of the Reform Bill.

Many things combined to make the last phase pass quickly. It was impossible that the Peerage could long survive the Reform Bill, for it took from the great families their pocket boroughs, and so much of their influence. And there followed hard upon it the educational effect of new facilities for exchange of ideas, the railway trains, the penny post and the halfpenny paper, together with the centralization of general opinion and all government which has resulted therefrom. But above all reasons were the loss of the qualifying ancestral lands, a link with the soil; and the ennobling of landless men. Once divorced

from its influence over some country-side a peerage resting on heredity was doomed; for no one can defend a system whereby men of no exceptional ability, representative of nothing, are legislators by inheritance. Should we summon to a conclave of the nations a King who had no kingdom? But the pity of it! Not only the break with eight centuries of history—nay, more, for when had not every King his Council of notables?—not only the loss of picturesqueness and sentiment and lofty aim, but the certainty, the appalling certainty, that, when an aristocracy of birth falls, it is not an aristocracy of character or intellect, but an aristocracy—save the mark—of money, which is bound to take its place.

Rapid change in public sentiment.

Five short years and four rejected measures! Glance back over it all. The wild blood on both sides, and the cunning on one. The foolish comfortable words spoken in every drawing-room throughout the United Kingdom: "Yes, they are terrible: what a lot of harm they would do if they could. Thank God we have a House of Lords." Think now that this was commonplace conversation only three short years ago! And all the time the ears of the masses were being poisoned. Week after week and month after month some laughed but others toiled. The laughers, like the French nobles before the Revolution, said contemptuously, "They will not dare." Why should they not? There were men among them for

whom the Ark of the Covenant had no sanctity. And then, when the combinations were complete, when those who stood out had been kicked—there can be no other word—into compliance, the blows fell quickly. A Budget was ingeniously prepared for rejection, and, the Lords falling into the trap, the storm broke, with its hurricane of abuse and misrepresentation. We had one election which was inconclusive. Then befell the death of King Edward. There was a second election, carefully engineered and prepared for, rushed upon a nation which had been denied the opportunity of hearing the other side. The Government had out-manœuvred the Opposition and muzzled them to the last moment in a Conference sworn to secrecy. It was remarkably clever and incredibly unscrupulous. They won again. They had not increased their numbers, but they had maintained their position, and this time their victory, however achieved, could not be gainsaid. For a moment there was a lull, only some vague talk of "guarantees," asserted, scoffed at and denied, for the ordinary business of the country was in arrears, and the Coronation, with all its pomp of circumstance and power, all its mediæval splendor and appeal to history and sentiment, turned people's thoughts elsewhere.

The Government out-manœuvres the Opposition.

And then, on the day the pageantry closed, Mr. Asquith launched his Thunderbolt. Few men living will ever learn the true story of the

guarantees, suffice it that somehow he had secured them. Whatever the resistance of the Second Chamber might be, it could be overborne. At his dictation the Constitution was to fall. There was no escape; the Bill must surely pass. It rested with the Lords themselves whether they should bow their heads to the inevitable, humbly or proudly, contemptuously or savagely—characterize it as you will—or whether there should be red trouble first.

The choice between two evils.

Surely never in our time has there been a situation of higher psychological interest, for never before have we seen a body of some six hundred exceptional men called on to take each his individual line upon a subject which touched him to the core. I say "individual line" and "exceptional men." Does either adjective require defending?

The Peers are not a regiment, they are still independent entities, with all the faults and virtues which this implies; free gentlemen subject to no discipline, responsible to God and their own consciences alone. At times they may combine on questions which appeal to their sense of right, their sentiment, perhaps some may say their self-interest; but this was no case for combination. Here was a sword pointed at each man's breast. What under the circumstances was to be his individual line of conduct?

And who will deny the word "exceptional"?

To a seventh of them it must perforce be applicable, for they have been specially selected to serve in an Upper House. And to the rest, those who sit by inheritance, does it not apply even more? It is not what they have done in life. This was no question of capacity or achievement. By the accident of birth alone they had been put in a position different from other men. How shall each in his wisdom or his folly interpret that well-worn motto which still has virtue both to quicken and control, "Noblesse oblige"?

Very curious indeed was the result. It is useless to consider the preliminaries, the pronouncements, the meetings, the campaign which raged for a fortnight in the Press both by letter and leading article. It is even useless to try to discover who, if anybody, was in favor of the Bill which was the original bone of contention. Its merits and defects were hardly debated. On that fateful 10th of August the House of Lords split into three groups on quite a different point. The King's Government had seized on the King's Prerogative and uttered threats. Should they or should they not be constrained to make good their threats and use it?

The fateful 10th of August.

The first group said—

"Yes. They have betrayed the Constitution and disgraced their position. Let their crime be brought home to them and to the world. All is lost for us except honor. Shall

we lose that also? To the last gasp we will insist on our amendments."

The second group said—

"No. They have indeed betrayed the Constitution and disgraced their position, but why add to this disaster the destruction of what remains to safeguard the Empire. We protest and withdraw, washing our hands of the whole business for the moment. But our time will come."

The third group said—

"No. We do not desire the King's Prerogative to be used. We will prevent any need for its exercise. The Bill shall go through without it."

And, the second group abstaining, by seventeen votes the last prevailed against the first. But whether ever before a victory was won by so divided a host, or ever a measure carried by men who so profoundly disapproved of it, let those judge who read the scathing Protest, inscribed in due form in the journals of the House of Lords by one who went into that lobby, Lord Rosebery, the only living Peer who has been Prime Minister of England.

The scathing Protest.

It is unnecessary to print here more than the tenth and last paragraph of this tremendous indictment. It runs:—

"Because the whole transaction tends to bring discredit on our country and its institutions."

How under these extraordinary circumstances did the Peerage take sides, old blood and new blood, the governing families and the so-called "backwoodsmen," they who were carving their own names, and they who relied upon the inheritance of names carved by others?

The first group, the "No-Surrender Peers," mustered 114 in the division. Two Bishops were among them, Bangor and Worcester, and the following distinguished list of peers, first of their line: The peerage divided.

Earls.	*Barons.*
Halsbury.	Atkinson.
Roberts.	Hothfield.
	Leith of Fyvie.
Viscounts.	Merthyr.
Llandaff.	Northcote.
Milner.	Stanmore.

When the story of our times is written it will be seen that there are few walks of life in which some one of these has not borne an honorable part.

Then at a bound we are transported to the Middle Ages. Less than two months ago, when the Abbey Church of Westminster rang to the shouts, "God save King George," five lords of Parliament knelt on the steps of the throne, kissed the King's cheek, and did homage, each as the chief of his rank and

representing every noble of it. They are all here:

The chief peers.

The Duke of Norfolk, Earl Marshal and premier Peer of England, head of the great house of Howard, a name that for five centuries has held its own with highest honor.

The Marquess of Winchester, head of the Paulets, representative of the man who for three long years held Basing House for the King against all the forces which Cromwell could muster; but descended also from that earlier Marquess of Tudor creation, who, when he was asked how in those troublous times he succeeded in retaining the post of Lord High Treasurer, replied, "By being a willow and not an oak." To-day the boot is on the other leg.

The Earl of Shrewsbury, head of the Talbots, a race far famed alike in camp and field from the days of the Plantagenets.

The Viscount Falkland, representative of that noble Cavalier who fell at Newbury.

The Baron Mowbray and Segrave and Stourton, titles which carry us back almost to the days of the Great Charter.

Nor does the feudal train end there. We see also—

A St. Maur, Duke of Somerset, whose family has aged since in the time of Henry VIII. men scoffed at it as new.

A Clinton, Duke of Newcastle.

A Percy, Duke and heir of Northumberland, a name of high romance.

A De Burgh, Marquess of Clanricarde.

A Lindsay, Earl of Crawford, twenty-sixth Earl, and head of a house which for eight centuries has stood on the steps of thrones.

A Courtenay, Earl of Devon.

An Erskine, Earl of Mar, an earldom whose origin is lost in the mists of antiquity.

A Plunkett, Earl of Fingall.

A Hay, Earl of Erroll, Lord High Constable of Scotland.

A Brabazon, Earl of Meath.

A Lumley, Earl of Scarborough.

Two Frasers, Lords Saltoun and Lovat, Lord Sinclair, Lord Bagot, Lord Willoughby de Broke, and many another.

And if we come to later days we have the Duke of Bedford, head of the great Whig house of Russell; the Dukes of Marlborough and Westminster, heirs of capacity and good fortune; Lords Bute and Salisbury, descendants of Prime Ministers; and not only Lord Selborne, but Lords Bathurst and Coventry, Hardwicke and Rosslyn, representatives of past Lord Chancellors.

These, and others such as they, inheritors of traditions bred in their very bones, spurning the suggestion that they should purchase the uncontamination of the Peerage by the forfeiture of their principles, fought the question to the end. If they asked for a motto,

The "No Surrender" Peers.

surely theirs would have been, "Fais ce que dois, advienne que pourra."

The "Surrender" Peers.

And then the other group, the "Surrender Peers," the Majority of 131, indeed an odd mixture, amongst them the bravest of men; dissenting, some we know, most of them we believe, from the Bill in favor of which they were voting. Here were the two Archbishops and eleven Bishops:

Canterbury.	Hereford.
York.	Lichfield.
	Ripon.
Bath and Wells.	St. Asaph.
Birmingham.	Southwell.
Carlisle.	Wakefield.
Chester.	Winchester.

Let the Archbishop of York, appointed on the recommendation of this Government and reckoned as one of their strong supporters, speak his mind:

He regarded both the Bill and the policy which had led up to it as the record of a great failure to use a unique opportunity.

And again:

The proposals of the Government would lower the prestige of this House in the eyes of the country and of the world at a time when the prestige of any Second Chamber was a thing to be prized.

And lastly:

Let it not be said that his vote was given on

behalf of the Government or of their policy. To say that would be to place on his action an interpretation which he had expressly and publicly disowned before giving his vote. He would give that vote with great reluctance; but there were times when it might require a higher courage, when it might win a truer victory, to restrain one's feelings, however strong, than to relieve them, times when in the service of the King and of the country "he that ruleth his spirit is better than he that taketh a city."

Little wonder that after words like these the whip was cracked to keep quiet the Government pack, the 21 who hold office, and the 37 others whose nobility is not yet five years old. What their opinions are, what the principles which influenced their votes, approval of the Bill, gratitude to the Government for favors received or to come, dislike of the commoner herd who were to be brought in to cheapen their honor, or desire to save the Crown from further indignity at the hands of their leaders, no man can tell.

The principles that influenced the votes.

The huntsmen alone spoke; the pack, those days, ran mute. The ordinary books of reference will supply their names, and their pedigrees.

And of the sixty others, half of them Unionists, what is there to say? In contradistinction to those who voted for "No Surrender" throughout the group we have little historic

blood, and almost none that can be classed as feudal. There is the Marquess of Ailsa, Earl of Cassillis in Scotland, head of the Kennedys; the Marquess of Northampton; the Earl of Moray, descended of the Regent, Mary Queen of Scots' half-brother; the Earl of Elgin, a Viceroy and the son of a Viceroy; Viscount Mountgarret, a cadet of the Butlers; Viscount Cobham, the eldest of the distinguished brotherhood of Lyttelton; and the head of the ancient families of Pelham and Molyneux and Lambton.

A few well-known names remain. It is a curious coincidence that, if the tenderers of homage in the Abbey were in the one lobby, the four Knights of the Garter, chosen to stand about the King, to hold a canopy above his head and shield him, were in the other. Lord Rosebery has expressed himself freely, and his protest is on record for all time. Lord Cadogan, a veteran of Cabinet rank on the Unionist side, voted in silence. Lord Minto, head of the Border family of Elliot, so famous in the last century for its administrative capacity, and himself a Viceroy, though he went into that lobby, has written, "I yield to no one in my abhorrence of the Parliament Bill, and of the methods adopted to enforce it."

Lord Minto quoted.

But no words in speech or letter will go down more surely to posterity than those spoken by the Marquess of Crewe, the Master

of the Government pack: "The whole business, I frankly admit, is odious to me."

And still we pass to the group who abstained, the great mass of the Peerage, too proud to wrangle where they could not win, too wise to knock their heads uselessly against a wall, too loyal not to do their utmost to spare their King. More than three hundred followed Lord Lansdowne's lead, taking for their motto, perhaps, the "Cavendo tutus" of his son-in-law. And still there was fiery blood among them, and strong men swelling with righteous indignation. There were Gay Gordons, as well as a cautious Cavendish, an Irish Beresford to quicken a Dutch Bentinck, and a Graham of Montrose as well as a Campbell of Argyll. Three Earls, Pembroke, Powis, and Carnarvon, represented the cultured family of Herbert, and as a counterpoise to the Duke of Northumberland we see six Peers of the doughty Douglas blood. Lord Curzon found by his side three other Curzons, and the Duke of Atholl three Murrays from the slopes of the Grampians. There were many-acred potentates, such as the Dukes of Beaufort and Hamilton and Rutland, Lord Bath, Lord Leicester, and Lord Lonsdale, and names redolent of history, a Butler, Marquess of Ormonde, a Cecil, Marquess of Exeter, the representative of Queen Elizabeth's Lord Burleigh, and a Stanley, Earl of Derby, a name which to this day stirs Lancashire blood.

Lord Lansdowne's leadership.

If it were a question of tactics, then Earl Nelson agreed with the Duke of Wellington, and they were backed by seven others whose peerages had been won in battle on land or sea in the course of the last century; while if the Law should be considered, there were nine descendants of Lord Chancellors. Coming to more recent times, there was the son of John Lawrence of the Punjaub, and of Alfred Tennyson the poet, Lord St. Aldwyn and Lord Balfour of Burleigh and Lord Lister, and Lords Rothschild, Aldenham, and Revelstoke. What need to mention more? for there were men representative of every interest in every quarter; but if we wish to close this list with two names which might seem to link together the Constitutional history of these islands, let us note that there was agreement as to action between Viscount Peel, the sole surviving ex-Speaker of the House of Commons, and Lord Wrottesley, the head of the only family which can claim as of its name and blood one of the original Knights of the Garter.

The peers representative of every interest.

What more is there to say? As, nearly two years ago, we stood round the telegraph boards watching the election results coming in, many of us saw that the Peerage was falling. The end has come quicker than we expected. The Empire may repent, a new Constitution may spring into being, and there may be raised again a Second Chamber destined to be far

stronger than that which has passed, but it will never be the proud House of Peers far-famed in English history.

Franco-American treaty signed.

[Franco-American Treaty signed. President Taft starts on a 13,000 mile journey to expand his fiscal policy with a view to renomination. Strikes and rioting break out in England. General strike declared by the British union railway men. British anti-veto bill becomes a law. British railway strike settled.]

STRIKES

(A.D. 1911)

G.

A YEAR of unparalleled industrial strife has just concluded. We are warned that 1912 may plunge us into conflicts waged on a wider scale, and with increasing bitterness. And the bewildered public, threatened suddenly, as by the opening of volcanic fissures, asks whence these "upheavals," these "risings of labor," this "extraordinary wave of discontent and violence" rolling through the country? Last June a strike broke out in Southampton. Strikes have broken out constantly, in all industries, for the last fifty years. Southampton, surely, was but following the familiar precedent. But this south-coast seamen's strike ran through the seaports of England, and passed on to the transport workers of the inland cities, with the contagious quickness of conflagration. In August the country was aflame with industrial discord. Communications were held up, food supplies ceased, traffic was regulated by "passes" issued by strike committees, railway stations were occupied by troops carrying ball cartridge, the man in the street found the stable security

South-ampton strike.

of his life vanishing in a moment. What had happened?

If we compare the events of the past summer with the industrial propaganda carried on for the last year or two in England, and with recent industrial outbreaks in France, Sweden, Italy, America, Australia, and other countries, we shall see that this has happened. The English working man has now, for the first time in his history, been thoroughly taught the principles of the new Continental Trade-Unionism—the Syndicalist principle of the *multiplied strike,* the *sympathetic strike,* and the culminating *general strike.* Having learned these principles he has proceeded to translate them into direct action. The extent of the Syndicalist rising in England last year may be rapidly summarized. First came the multiplied strike. In the two months of June and July one hundred and two trade conflicts broke out; that is at the rate of over two per day. To the opening strike of the Southampton and other seamen in June (prefaced by a conference at which delegates from Continental ports were present), sixty-six further strikes were added by the end of July. The figures for the same month in the previous year show a total of fourteen. These sixty-six strikes, together with the June conflicts still proceeding, involved in all 111,783 transport workers throughout the United Kingdom; 1,895 miners in South Wales, and 6,417 miners

Extent of strike summarized.

in Manchester and Rotherham; 1,120 men in the building trade in Nottingham; 1,474 men in iron and steel works near Flint; 1,488 men in the engineering and shipbuilding trades at Lincoln and West Hartlepool; 1,093 textile workers in Derby; 500 workers in the Potteries; 401 millers in York; 197 chemical workers in Newcastle. By June 28th all the Atlantic liners at Liverpool were without crews, and food supplies were stopped at Hull. In the latter place rioting broke out, and Metropolitan police were dispatched thither, to Cardiff, and to Manchester. Rioting broke out also at Cardiff, where food became scarce, prices rose, and conflicts with the police were numerous. In August one hundred further strikes began; and in this month, and in September, the *sympathetic* strike appeared. The trade of London was partially paralyzed. There was a shortage of meat and vegetables at Smithfield and at Covent Garden, limited supplies being got through under police escort. By August 10th London was "face to face with a food famine." An extensive rise in prices ensued. Two days later the centre of disturbance shifted to Liverpool. A lock-out of 70,000 dockers was answered by a strike of all transport workers. A brigade of infantry and two regiments of cavalry were moved into the city. Four warships were ordered to the Mersey. Incendiarism, famine, and pestilence threatened the premier seaport

Rioting at Cardiff.

of the Empire. By August 17th Liverpool was under the reign of anarchy. Then, on August 18th the great railway strike, dislocating the communications of the entire country, was declared. Manchester, Leeds, and Bradford were isolated; attempted wrecking on the lines was discovered at Sheffield, York, and Newcastle; collisions between the people and the police and troops occurred at Derby, Bradford, Sheffield, Rotherham, Bristol, and Llanelly. In many places food prices rose. Food prices rise. And during the night of August 17th 12,500 troops of all arms were poured into London, as fast as the trains of the one line remaining loyal to the State, the London and South Western, could bring them. It was announced on the morning of the 18th that "practically every regiment stationed in Great Britain has now been mobilized at full strength, with every unit equipped under service conditions." It is estimated that 373,615 workmen were out on strike during August. By the end of the month England had learned the nature of the *multiplied strike,* and of the *sympathetic strike;* and the country had come within measurable distance of the third member of the trilogy of Syndicalism, the *general strike.*

And what of the economic, social, and moral results of this epidemic of conflict? The workers gained, in the majority of cases, increase of wages and relief in the hours of labor. But at what cost? During June and

July the loss to the wage-earners of the country amounted to over two million working days. In July, 189,108 working men and women had withdrawn their labor. In August a further 180,000 workmen were involved, with a further loss of another two million working days. In August, moreover, the disputes already disorganizing the railways and the transport trades were reacting on many industries, and producing unemployment. Thus the transport strikes injured the miners, the cotton operatives (many mills being temporarily stopped for want of raw material); the bleaching, printing, dyeing, and finishing industries; the potteries (the railway strike forced a number of firms to work short time); and the brick trade. The total loss to the national purse, not, be it noticed, to the capitalist's purse, but to John Bull's family purse, due to the strikes of 1911, has not yet been computed; but some idea of their economic results may be gathered from the estimates of the national loss inflicted by the great strikes of 1889. In that one year England experienced 1,145 strikes, involving thirty-two trades. These trades included the textile workers, coal miners, shipbuilders, engineers, dockers, seamen and firemen, transport workers, workers in the provision trade, metal workers, public scavengers, millers, brewers, and builders. The strike area included eighteen counties. The loss in wages to the workmen, due to 930

Loss from strikes.

alone of these strikes, was estimated at more that £1,122,000. One-third of the strikes resulted in capital of the fixed value of £14,000,000 lying idle. A contemporary rough estimate placed the national loss due to the dock strike *alone* at £2,000,000. These figures, for the great strike year of 1889, will give some clue to the drain on the country's purse made by the strikes of 1911.

The economic loss is, however, but a minor point in the national injury. As that veteran supporter of Trade Unionism, Mr. George Howell, tells us, "In estimating the cost of strikes, the outlay in pounds sterling is the least item to be considered. The social and moral effects are of far higher moment." To gauge these effects, something more detailed is needed than the mere survey of lost wages, strike areas, severed communications, dislocated trade, and the like. Such necessary detail is much to be desired, from every large centre of industrial conflict. Fortunately we have it to hand for Liverpool. It will be remembered that the summer was one of exceptional heat and dryness, and therefore of exceptional danger to the population of insanitary and crowded areas. The Liverpool Health Committee had successfully met this danger in July, by constant street cleansing and by measures for the feeding and care of the children of the workers, threatened with epidemic sickness. Until the beginning of

The Liverpool Health Committee.

August, throughout the insanitary weather of July, the health of the city remained normal. In the middle of August, however, the Strike Committee gained control of the transport and checked the food supplies of the community. Available food became stale, and here, of course, the poor were the first to suffer. Hundreds of tons of foodstuffs were destroyed; many food shops, including 300 butchers', were closed. The well-to-do could order in supplies by post or private car, or could escape from the threatened city; the workers were helpless. "Many poor people, in their desperate plight, are buying bad meat, rotten fruit, and stinking fish," wrote the correspondent of the "Daily Chronicle." By August 16th it was reported that "the hospitals are already beginning to experience difficulty in obtaining necessaries." Even the milk destined for the hospitals and sick, although the Strike Committee permitted some delivery for hospital uses, was partially destroyed. "As the strike expanded, with entire disregard of the injury which would follow to the poorer sections of the community, even more serious complications ensued; on August 16th the scavenging and cleansing the poorer parts of the City, which had been more or less hampered, were entirely suspended. . . . Those who are familiar with the habits and conditions of the inhabitants in certain parts of the City will realize what ensued when cleansing operations

The Strike Committee.

of all kinds ceased, and it is unnecessary to dwell upon the indescribable filth which was to be found in the courts and alleys. Between 6,000 and 7,000 tons of trade refuse, garbage from slaughter houses, domestic refuse, &c., had accumulated towards the close of the strike. Wanton damage was done by those on strike, or their allies, by the blocking up of grids and gullies, and other acts of a similar kind." The washhouses of the poor were closed, as the strikers refused to allow coal to be delivered. The Strike Committee also refused to allow means for the medical officer to visit the sick on incoming ships. The skilled feeding and care of the children of the poor, exposed throughout these weeks to the dangers of tropical heat, was no longer possible; and many infants and young children were left starving and neglected at home, while the distracted women were out in the streets. And the results? The mortality returns show the deaths, among the children of the workers, during the tropical days of July, as ranging from 20 to 81 per week; during the tropical days of August, while the City was under the rule of the Strike Committee, the children died at the rate of 132, rising to 157 per week. The total "casualties" among the children, due to this outbreak of industrial war in Liverpool, must, therefore, be estimated at 500 deaths. And this massacre of the Liverpool children was a massacre of the poor. The unhappy

The mortality amongst children.

strikers, guided by leaders imbued with the spirit of Continental Syndicalism, were unwittingly sending their own children, and the children of their neighbors, to the grave. The Syndicalist presses forward to his ideals over the bodies of children dying by the hundred per week. But when he addresses the fathers of those same children, his methods shine, in specious words, as the "glorious spirit of solidarity," as the "new spirit of collective revolt," as "splendid manifestations which revealed thousands of working men risking everything," as a "widening of the area of battle," as the bringing into action, "on a larger scale than ever before, of the powerful weapon of the sympathetic strike." The new Syndicalist Unionism of the multiplied strike, the sympathetic strike, the general strike, is war, but war without the Geneva Convention; it is industrial war conducted by methods hitherto unknown to Englishmen; it is war alien to the very spirit of industrial prosperity; it is an insensate war levied upon all classes of society by that one class which is bound to suffer most heavily; it is a fratricidal conflict so cruel and ignoble that some meaner name than war is needed to describe it; it is war that develops, and develops swiftly, as its promoters intend that it should develop, into social anarchy. During the past summer England approached within sight of such anarchy, her communications held up, her

Industrial war.

food supplies threatened, her trade and sanitation dislocated, her little children dying by the hundred. The outbreak stunned by its apparent suddenness. In other words, the middle and upper classes, the Press, the Government, had taken little heed to the spirit of Continental Syndicalism silently working, of recent years, among our own industrial population. Struggling with rising food prices, with wages insufficient for bare physical efficiency, with high rents for miserable housing, and left alone in their struggle, our workers have listened to the only voices within their hearing, the ardent voices of the "Industrial Unionists," spreading the theory and practice of Syndicalism throughout the country.

"Industrial Unionists."

What, then, is this new force in the labor world? Briefly, the aim of Syndicalism is the overthrow of the present capitalistic society, and the substitution of Unions of working men, controlling the whole of industry. The Syndicalist advances beyond political or constitutional action. He works, not through any Parliamentary group, but through the *Class War,* waged by the direct action of working men, grouped in Industrial Unions, and employing the triple weapon of the multiplied strike, the sympathetic strike, the general strike. "The pivot of Syndicalism is the general strike." The intoxicatingly new and bold method of the general strike may be repre-

sented to the working man (listening too often with an empty stomach) as no more than the development of the sectional strikes with which he has always been familiar. The sympathetic strike appeals to all his finer instincts as an opportunity (as indeed it is) of showing his loyalty to his class, his capacity to suffer hunger and privation in order that his wage-mates may gain some relief. The workman is assured that, once he adopts the Syndicalist policy, industrial capital will inevitably be transferred from its present owners to himself. The abolition of wages is to form the basis of the Unions of the future. The workman is to control his own labor, producing the necessaries and luxuries of life for himself. Both the Utopia and the methods of Syndicalism are closely allied with the Utopia and the methods of Anarchism. According to the famous exponent of Syndicalism, Georges Sorel, the new movement actually had its birth when the Anarchists entered and dominated the French Trade Unions or *Syndicats*.

Georges Sorel quoted.

"Historians," says M. Sorel, "will one day recognize that this entrance of the anarchists into the *syndicats* was one of the greatest events which have happened in our time." Both movements aim at re-establishing society, after the necessary cataclysm of the general strike, on the basis of free groups of workmen, controlling the produce of the world. Both aim at the destruction of patriotism, in fa-

vor of an international "solidarity" of workers—the substitution of the spirit of class for the spirit of nationality. Both hail the multiplied strike as the first step to the general strike. Thus the anarchist, Arnold Roller, declares that "with strikes ever growing more numerous and larger, the idea of the general strike is spontaneously created." And, again, "soon the working people will gain their demands without the aid of political leaders, directly through the social general strike." Both see in the Trade Unions an organization ready created to their hand—"because strikes are mostly caused by Trade Unionists, the general strike idea is mostly propagated in Trade Unions." In France the Trades Union Congresses, year by year, from 1892, have adopted the method of the general strike by overwhelming majorities. And it is interesting to find the Parliamentary leader of our own Labor Party, Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, M.P., writing in November last, heartily in accord with Anarchist and Syndicalist policy in this crucial matter of the general strike: "You can call a general strike perhaps once in twenty years, and even if it fails in its full purpose, it will bring so much good in its train that it is justified. . . . It is 'a bonnie weapon.'"

Ramsay Macdonald quoted.

The essential marks of Syndicalism, then, are an ardent faith in the Class War; the fomenting of multiplied strikes, leading, through the

sympathetic strike, up to the general strike; and direct action, whether violent or peaceful, by the workman. The movement is mainly French in origin, but has spread throughout the Continent; has appeared in America and in the British Colonies; and has been, for at least two years, actively propagated in England. That the seeds so assiduously sown by the English preachers of Syndicalism or "Industrial Unionism" have germinated with startling rapidity, in the soil prepared for them by the connivance of the nation at the insufficient wage of its workers, appears from the slightest comparison of Syndicalist doctrine and the events of the past year.

The goal of the Syndicalist is that "the workers will become citizens of the industry in which they are employed, rather than subjects of the State in which they reside"; and again, "we shall unite all the workers in any one industry, and unite all industries. We will build a 'State within a State.'" When the household of the State is thus divided against itself, for how long shall that household stand? And this supreme class is to win its ultimate separate existence by the Class War, seductively preached as an immediate means of raising wages, and relieving the hours of labor. The British working man does not want the Class War, the expropriation of owners, the "State within a State," the Social Revolution. But he does want, and he

"State within a State."

rightly wants, a living wage. As the strikers of Leven declared in December, "We are not out against property, but against starvation." As the London dockers said last August, when the overcrowded pawnshops could take no more pledges, "it is better to starve quickly than to starve by inches." And if no other remedy is offered to the workman save that offered, daily and weekly, by the persuasive tongue of the Syndicalist, who shall blame him if he tries it? What wonder if he follows the only leaders who promise him speedy redress, worked by his own hands,—if he is intoxicated by the heady arguments supplied to him. And if a strike secures some immediate benefit, as it often does, the validity of these arguments seems to him incontestable. The English working man knows, to our shame be it said, what is meant by keeping a home together on twenty shillings a week. He knows the excessive hours, and the speeding up, which make overdrafts on his physical strength, already undermined by the insufficiency of his food. He experiences daily the pinch resulting from the rise in food prices, the half-empty grate due to an increase of 33 per cent. in the cost of coal. He can appreciate the truth of the warning, promulgated twenty years ago, that "it is neither just nor human so to grind men down with excessive labor, as to stupefy their minds and wear out their bodies." John Bull is the father of a

Rise in food prices.

large industrial family. These children of his work hard; they have helped to build up a great Empire, a world-wide commerce. And what is his care of them? In a typical English city *one-seventh* of the wage-earners, all loafers being excepted, were recently receiving wages *insufficient to keep them in bare physical efficiency,* that is, for bare housing, bare clothing, bare food. In the capital of the Empire *thirty per cent.* of London working men receive wages *below the subsistence level.* Beguiled in his distress, in his stupefied brain and underfed body, by false leaders, the working man is at last embarking on the only prompt measures offered to his hand—the strike, the multiplied strike, the general strike. And what did our humane and intelligent Press say, last summer, to this his desperate experiment? "Crazy fanaticism," commented "The Times." "Nervous excitement brought on by the excessively hot weather," suggested the "Daily Chronicle." "A whiff of grape shot," cried the "Morning Post." The English working man asks for bread, and the "Morning Post" offers him a bullet. Conciliation Boards sitting in Whitehall? All such industrial treaties presuppose industrial war. Conciliation Boards are at best palliatives. The sick member of the body politic needs a better remedy than palliatives, and he needs it now. There is no finer material in the world than the British working man. At the present

Press editorials.

moment we are starving his body on wages insufficient for healthy subsistence, and leaving his mind an easy prey to the fierce international contagion of Syndicalism. It is time that the nation remembered that "the capital of money and the capital of strength and skill must be united together, or we can have no production, and no progress." The question for 1912 is by what means this true Industrial Unionism shall be attained.

[Jews robbed in Monmouthshire, England. White Star liner *Olympic* outward bound collided with cruiser *Hawke* in the Solent (both damaged). Leonardo da Vinci's masterpiece, *Mona Lisa,* stolen from the Louvre. Dr. Manoel Arriga elected President of the Portuguese Republic. Success of the new Turkestan wheat, "chule," announced from the National Plant Introduction Gardens, near Chico, Cal. Discovery of a new Arctic race in British Columbia. Henry N. Attwood completes his 1,265-mile flight from St. Louis to New York. Lehigh Valley passenger train wrecked at Manchester, N. Y. (30 killed). Battleship *Ridavia* (Argentine), biggest battleship in the world, launched at Fall River, Mass. Austin, Penn., destroyed by the bursting of a dam and fire. Yangtze Kiang floods drown thousands. Phenomenal rise in the price of commodities in France leads to "food riots." First aerial postal service opened in

Dr. Arriga elected President of Portugal.

England between Hendon and Windon. Dr. Douglas Mawson announces from Australia the discovery of a large lode of radium ore. Eruption of Mt. Etna causes flight of 20,000 inhabitants. President and Premier of France inspect the French fleet (90 warships) at Toulon. Portuguese Republic formally recognized by the Powers. German reply to French proposals in regard to Morocco received in Paris. M. Stolypin, the Russian Premier, fatally shot in a theatre in Kieff. French reply to the German counter-proposals regarding Morocco received in Berlin. Rise of food prices causes demonstrations in Vienna, and the Austrian Government reduces railway rates on corn and vegetables. Kokovtsoff appointed Prime Minister of Russia. French battleship *Liberté* blown up in Toulon harbor (200 lives lost). Telephone message sent from Montreal to Fort William, Canada, by a newly invented telephone. Madero elected President of Mexico. Italy begins war with Turkey. Prevesa bombarded by the Italian fleet and the Tripoli Coast blockaded.]

Madero elected President of Mexico.

END OF VOLUME NINE